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BRITAIN
under
The Romans

*Mediaeval England from the
English settlement to the reformation*

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{ Lesson for Man. & Mrs. M. E. M. M.

Periods of English History.

MEDIÆVAL ENGLAND

FROM THE ENGLISH SETTLEMENT
TO THE REFORMATION

EDITED BY

Walter
W. SCOTT DALGLEISH, M.A., LL.D.,

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&c. &c.



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PREFACE.

PREFACE.

THE preference now generally shown for the plan of teaching History *in periods* is proof of a desire to study the subject systematically and thoroughly. This series of Histories is intended to facilitate and encourage that method.

The Periods of English History adopted are those of the OXFORD and CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS, and of other schemes of the same kind, namely :—

- I. MEDIEVAL ENGLAND, from the English Settlement to the Dawn of the Reformation : 449-1509.
- II. ENGLAND of the Reformation and the Revolution : 1509-1688.
- III. MODERN ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN, from the Revolution to the last Reform Acts : 1688-1885.

The prominent feature in the plan of the series is the importance attached to the development of the Constitution. Thus, the First Volume deals with Feudal Monarchy (Supremacy of the Crown), the Second with Absolute Monarchy (The Crown *versus* the Parliament), the Third with Limited Monarchy (Supremacy of the Parliament).

The same principle is worked out in detail in each volume. At the close of each reign there is a summary of the constitutional changes effected in the course of it, with an indication of its general tendency from a constitutional point of view ; while in important reigns—such as those of Edward I. and Edward III.—the leading statutes are analysed. A very full Summary of constitutional points is given at the close of the volume.

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MEDIÆVAL ENGLAND.

449-1509 A.D.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.—PREHISTORIC BRITAIN.

1. **Unwritten History.**—The written history of the British Isles begins no earlier than the time of Julius Cæsar, half a century before the Christian era. There are, however, unwritten records which carry us back from that time ages and ages—how many, no man can tell. These records are contained in caverns and quarries, on rocks and stones, in the drift or gravel washed down by rivers, and in the beds of drained lakes. For example, the bones of animals dug out of the valley of the Thames, thirty feet below the surface, show that the British Isles were once the home not only of the wolf and the bear, which long since disappeared from them, but also of the mammoth and the hairy rhinoceros and other animals now extinct. Geologists have come to the conclusion that in that remote age the British lands were not yet islands, but were part of the continent of Europe, which extended beyond the west of Ireland, and probably included the Orkney and the Shetland Islands.

2. **The First Stone Age.**—Were there men in Britain at that time? There is reason to believe that there were; for in the drift of rivers assigned to the same period there have been found tools and weapons made of flint, rudely fashioned by chipping, which only human hands could have made. Anti-

quaries therefore call this age the First or Ancient Stone¹ Age, to distinguish it from another and more recent one. The men belonging to it are believed to have resembled the Eskimos of North America in appearance and in customs.

3. The Second Stone Age: The Iberians.—There came a time, however, when, by some process of depression, or by some mighty convulsion, the plain on which the British Islands stand sank below its former level. Then the waters of the Atlantic overflowed the land and filled the lower valleys. The North Sea, the English Channel, and the Irish Sea were formed. Only the higher parts of the land remained above the waters, and formed the group of islands that stand between the North Sea and the Atlantic. Thereafter a second race of men of the Stone Age came on the scene. They belonged to the Second or New Stone² Age, and they excelled their predecessors in the finer workmanship and more perfect shape of their flint implements, and also in their ability to make pottery. They are believed to have been of the same race as the Basques of the Pyrenees, and like them are called Iberians. We may assume, therefore, that when we reach the Iberians, we approach very near to historic times; for they belonged to the same family as the Lapps and the Finns of Northern Europe, and the Magyars of Hungary—namely, the Turanian family, of which the chief modern representatives are the Chinese and the Turks. Probably all these peoples came originally from Asia. In remote times, before men had settled down in states and nations, successive swarms of population spread over Europe, each swarm forcing the preceding one further toward the west and the north, till the sea-coast was reached. Thus we find the Lapps and the Finns in the extreme north of Europe, the Basques in Spain, and the Iberians in Britain. This country was not yet called, however, by that name. The Iberian names for it were Albin and Albion. Britain is a later name, of Celtic origin.

4. The Celts.—After the Iberians came the Celts—how long

¹ Ancient Stone, or Palæolithic, from Greek, *palaios*, ancient; *lithos*, stone.

² New Stone, or Neolithic, from Greek, *neos*, new; *lithos*, stone.

after them, no one can tell; for a great part, perhaps the greater part, of the Celtic occupation was in prehistoric times. The Celts belonged to the same family of peoples as the Greeks and the Romans, the Teutons and the Slavs, the Hindus and the Persians—the peoples that founded the nations of South-Western Asia and of modern Europe. That family is called the Aryan¹ or the Indo-European—the latter name indicating its wide range, from India to Europe. The Celts were fair-haired, while the Iberians were dark. The Celts were also taller and more powerful men, and being armed with bronze weapons, they easily overthrew the Iberians, whose only arms were flint-tipped arrows and spears and stone axes, and drove them into remote corners of the island. Now we know from Herodotus, the Greek historian, that in the fifth century B.C., Phœnician sailors used to visit the British Isles for the purpose of procuring supplies of tin from the natives. Indeed he calls the islands the Cassiterides, or the “Tin Islands.” We must infer from this that the Celts were in possession of Britain at that time, as the Iberians were stone-workers only, and did not work in metals.

5. **Gaels and Cymrians.**—Antiquaries, however, distinguish two separate Celtic waves in these islands—an earlier and a later. The earlier Celts were Goidels or Gaels, and are represented to-day by the Erse of Ireland and the Gaels of Scotland. The later Celts were Cymri, and were called Brythons or Britons. They are represented by the Welsh of Wales, and formerly by the Cymrians of the north-west and the Cornishmen of the south-west. Just as the Iberians had been driven northward and westward by the Gaels, so were the Gaels in turn driven northward and westward by the Britons. From them the island derived its name of Britain;² and as the word

¹ *Aryan*, from a Sanskrit word meaning “noble,” or “well-born.” The Aryans were supposed by the older school of authorities to have had their original home in the highlands of Central Asia. Later scholars locate the Aryans between the Caspian Sea and the river Oxus.

² *Name of Britain.* Britain thus means

the land of the Britons. The origin of the latter name is disputed. The most probable explanation is that it comes from the Celtic *Brit-daoine*, the painted people. The name “Great Britain” was used in later times to distinguish the island from Bretagne or Brittany, in France.

"Britannic" was used by Aristotle in the fourth century B.C., we must conclude that the Britons were at that time supreme in the island. With the Celts the period of written history in Britain begins.

CHAPTER II.—CELTIC BRITAIN.

1. **State of the Country.**—When the written history of Britain does begin, it is rather a chapter of Roman history than British history in the proper sense. All that we know regarding the state of the country and its people at that time is derived from Julius Cæsar's account of the invasion. The most striking feature of the country as it presented itself to him was the abundance of its forests, which gave secure protection to the Britons in time of war, and covered their movements when attacking the invaders. He was struck with the numbers of the people, describing them as "countless," and also with the number of their buildings, which, he says, resembled those of Gaul. The cattle also were numerous. Tin was plentiful, and iron was got in small quantities.

2. **The People.**—Cæsar notes specially the difference between the people of the south-east coasts and the people of the interior. The latter were ruder and wilder than the former. They were clad in skins; they sowed no corn, and they lived chiefly on flesh and milk. The maritime Britons had made some progress in civilization. They tilled the ground and sowed grain; they wore dresses of woollen cloth, and they adorned themselves with chains of gold, silver, and bronze, which were imported from Belgium and Gaul. Cæsar accounts for the more civilized condition of the southern Britons by supposing that they were to a large extent immigrants from Belgium. While he assumes that the Belgians entered Britain for the purposes of plunder and war, it is more likely that they were attracted by the trade in tin, which was then regularly exported to the Continent. All the Britons, according to Cæsar, dyed their skin a bluish colour with the juice of a plant called *wood*, in order to give them a terrible aspect in

battle. They were a brave and hardy people, and had some knowledge of war. Cæsar describes them as fighting on foot, on horseback, and in chariots. From blades dug up on ancient battle-fields, the chariots seem to have been armed with scythes attached to the axles. The rude monumental stones found in different parts of Great Britain—the cromlechs¹ of Anglesey, and the stone circles of Stonehenge² and of Stennis in Orkney—have been supposed to be British remains; but both their age and their uses are uncertain. They were most probably monuments of the dead; but some have supposed that they were used as temples.

3. **Druidism.**—The religion of the Britons was Druidism; of which, however, little is certainly known. Their priests were called Druids.³ The sun, as the grandest object and the greatest power in nature, was worshipped as the fittest emblem of Deity. The oak and the mistletoe were also held sacred. In the oak groves were the dwellings of the Druids and the temples for their worship; while the mistletoe was regarded as a remedy for every disease. Human sacrifices formed a part of their worship; but the victims were generally criminals, or prisoners taken in war. Druidism exercised very great power over those who believed in it. The Romans were usually tolerant conquerors; but the influence of Druidism interfered so completely with the establishment of their authority and of their laws, that they were compelled to suppress the system by military force. When the Druids were forbidden to celebrate their rites in Britain, they retired to the island of Mona (Anglesey), and continued there the practice of their horrible superstitions. There, by order of the Emperor, the Roman army followed them in 61 A.D., and a terrible carnage of priests and worshippers extinguished the cruel system. When the Britons next appear prominently on the page of

¹ *Cromlech*, a large flat stone resting on two or three stone uprights. Cromlechs are found in Anglesey and other parts of Wales, and in Devonshire and Cornwall in England. They were once believed to be

Druidical altars, but they were really tombs.

² *Stonehenge*, two stone circles in Salisbury Plain, in Wiltshire.

³ *Druids*, from the Celtic word *druidh*, meaning a "sage."

history, they appear as Christian missionaries, and as the defenders of Christianity against the heathen English.

CHAPTER III.—ROMAN BRITAIN.

55 B.C.—410 A.D.

1. **The Roman Republic.**—The little that we know regarding the Celtic inhabitants of Britain we have learned from the Romans, who first visited the island in 55 B.C. The Roman Republic was at that time the most powerful state in the world; indeed, nearly the whole of the then known world was subject to its sway. For nearly a century Greece¹ had been a Roman province; and Carthage,² Rome's most powerful rival, had been lying in ruins. Her dominions extended from the Euphrates in the east to the Atlantic in the west, and from the Danube and the Rhine to Africa; and she styled herself, not unreasonably, the Mistress of the World.

2. **Cæsar in Gaul.**—The general who had pushed the Roman conquests furthest northward was Julius Cæsar.³ He spent eight campaigns in reducing the hardy Celts of Gaul to submission. Twice he marched with his victorious troops to the shores of the western ocean. On one of these occasions, as he stood on the north-western shore of Gaul, he looked across the Channel and saw the white cliffs of Britain. Cæsar knew that the Britons and the Gauls belonged to the same race, and that the Britons had been in the habit of sending help to their friends across the Channel. Partly in order to punish the

¹ Greece. Made a Roman province in 146 B.C.

² Carthage, on north coast of Africa, near Tunis; founded 878 B.C. Its greatness reached its zenith in the time of Hannibal, who conquered the greater part of Spain in 219 B.C. Three great wars (called Punic Wars) were carried on by Carthage with Rome: First Punic War, 264–241 B.C.; second, 218–201 B.C.; third, 149–146 B.C. In the last-mentioned year Carthage was taken by Scipio, and burned to the ground by order of the Senate.

³ Julius Cæsar, one of the greatest of the Romans, born 100 B.C. He conquered Gaul, triumphed over Pompey in the Civil War, settled the affairs of Greece, and subdued Spain. He became the most powerful man in the State. His rivals suspected him of aiming at the sovereignty, and formed a plot against his life. He was assassinated in the Senate House, 44 B.C. He was great also as an orator and a writer. His chief work is his *Commentaries* on his Gallic Wars, in which his invasions of Britain are described.

Britons for having aided his enemies, partly in order to strike terror into them, and to prevent further trouble, Cæsar resolved to invade Britain.

3. **Cæsar's First Invasion of Britain: 55 B.C.**—His first visit to the island was undertaken chiefly for the purpose of exploring the coast. It was autumn. Storms were frequent. The utmost he could hope to do was to gather information about harbours and landing-places that might be of use to him in the following spring. Late in August of the year 55 B.C., Cæsar crossed the Strait of Dover with an army of 12,000 foot-soldiers, carried in 80 transports; but without any cavalry, the ships conveying it having been scattered by a storm. The Britons defended their shores bravely, and the Romans had difficulty in landing. When the shore was reached at length, Roman discipline prevailed over rude valour, and the invaders made good their ground. The Britons at once sued for peace, and gave hostages. A few days later, a high tide destroyed many of the Roman ships, and the invading army was thus placed in a dangerous position. When the chiefs of the Britons discovered the state of matters, they summoned their followers from far and near, in order, as they thought, to drive the Romans into the sea. Cæsar drew up his army in front of the camp. The battle which followed was of short duration; for the Britons, having attempted in vain to break the Roman line, turned and fled. The same evening the chiefs sued for peace again, which Cæsar granted. As soon as possible thereafter, he returned to Gaul, from which he had been absent only seventeen days.

4. **Cæsar's Second Invasion: 54 B.C.**—Cæsar returned to Britain in the following spring with a much larger army—25,000 men and 2,000 cavalry. His landing was unopposed; but after advancing into the country for some distance, he received intelligence that, as in the previous year, a great part of his fleet had been destroyed by a storm. He therefore returned to the coast, and repaired his remaining ships, before resuming his campaign. The British tribes, united under the leadership of Caswallon (or Cassivelaunus, as the Romans

called him), offered but a weak resistance. They fought only one great battle, and their defeat so dispirited them that they did not again venture to attack the Romans in the open field. Cæsar crossed the Thames, stormed the forest stronghold of Caswallon, and captured great herds of cattle. Caswallon then made his submission to the conqueror. Having demanded tribute and hostages, Cæsar withdrew the whole of his troops to Gaul. The chief result of his visits to Britain was that they made the island better known to the civilized world.

5. **Aulus Plautius in Britain: 43-47 A.D.**—The Romans left Britain undisturbed for nearly a century after Cæsar's departure. The most prominent figure in Britain during that time was Cunobelin (the Cymbeline of Shakespeare's play), a grandson of Caswallon, who made his tribe the most powerful in the land. The Romans returned in the reign of the Emperor Claudius,¹ and then the Roman conquest of Britain really began. In 43 A.D., Aulus Plautius landed with an army of 40,000 men. His chief opponents were Togidumnus and Caractacus, the sons of Cunobelin. Having secured several native tribes as his allies, Plautius defeated the brothers in a great battle. Togidumnus was slain, and Caractacus was driven into exile among the Silures of South Wales. Before he left Britain, in 47 A.D., Plautius had reduced it to Roman rule as far north as the Wash, and as far west as the Severn.

6. **Ostorius Scapula Governor: 47-51 A.D.**—Ostorius Scapula, the successor of Plautius, had great trouble with the Welsh tribes, particularly with the Silures of South Wales, whom Caractacus now led. They made frequent raids on the Roman frontier, and then retired to their mountain fastnesses. Ostorius defeated and captured Caractacus in 50 A.D., and sent him a prisoner to Rome; but the Silures were not quelled. Ostorius built strong fortresses on the Welsh frontier to keep the tribes in check. He also founded the first regular Roman colony in Britain—namely, at Camulodunum, the modern Colchester.

Abroad.—About 52 A.D. the Apostle Paul preached the gospel at Athens and Corinth.



7. Suetonius Paulinus Governor: 58-62 A.D. — Suetonius Paulinus was the governor who massacred the Druids in Mona, as has already been described. His motive was not so much hatred of their cruel superstition as his desire to get rid of men who stirred up the Britons to oppose the Roman rule. During his absence in the west, a formidable revolt was headed in the east by Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni. Camulodunum was sacked, and nearly 70,000 Romans were slain in a few days, there and in the surrounding country. Suetonius took terrible vengeance for this outrage. He defeated Boadicea and her Britons in a great battle, in which and in the subsequent

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slaughter 80,000 natives fell. Boadicea poisoned herself after her defeat (61 A.D.).

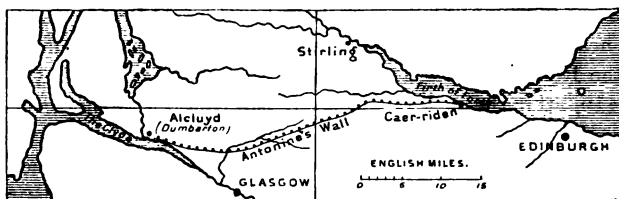
8. **Agricola Governor: 78–84 A.D.**—To Julius Agricola¹ belongs the credit of having made Britain a Roman province in more than in name. Agricola was fortunate in having his operations described by his son-in-law Tacitus, the Roman historian. He conquered Wales, and he penetrated further north than any Roman general had done before him, making Eboracum (York) the northern capital. He reconciled the natives to the Roman rule by removing unjust taxes, and by introducing among them the arts of peace and the manners of civilized life. In the year 80 A.D. Agricola entered Caledonia (Scotland), and drove the natives northward before him. He advanced with his army as far as to the Tay; but hopeless of being able to hold all the land he had overrun, he resolved to fix on the line of the Forth and the Clyde, where the island is narrowest, as the northern boundary of the province. Between the estuaries of these rivers he threw up a chain of forts to guard the frontier. He subsequently made two incursions into Caledonia, in the second of which he gained a great victory over the Caledonians at a place called Mons Grampius,² or Graupius. The native army melted away so completely after this defeat, that the Romans had no occasion for more fighting. Agricola finally left Britain in 84 A.D.

9. **The Roman Walls: 121–139 A.D.**—The mastery of the Romans on the borders of Caledonia was maintained with the sword alone. They had to contend with the hostility of the Cumbrians, as well as with the open attacks of the Caledonians. In the year 121 A.D., the Emperor Hadrian, during a visit to Britain, built a stone wall with mile-castles, and an earthen rampart parallel to it, across the island from the Tyne to the Solway Firth. This great work seems to have been a con-

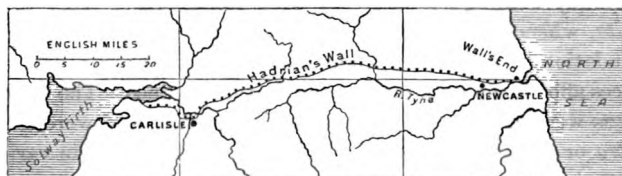
¹ *Julius Agricola*. Born 37, died 93 A.D. He became Consul (chief magistrate) of Rome in 77. Said to have been poisoned by order of a jealous emperor.

² *Mons Grampius*. The best MSS. of Tacitus read *Graupius*. Ardoch, in Perthshire, 8 miles north of Dunblane, has

generally been named as the scene of this battle. There is a very complete example of a Roman camp at Ardoch, but Agricola is believed to have made it two years earlier. Comrie, farther north, has some claims to be considered the site of the great battle.



THE ROMAN WALL BETWEEN THE FORTH AND THE CLYDE.



THE ROMAN WALL BETWEEN THE TYNE AND THE SOLWAY.

tinuous intrenched camp intended to overawe the tribes on both sides of it. It was afterwards repaired and strengthened by the Emperor Severus (205–210 A.D.), whose name it often bears. In 139, Agricola's forts were connected and strengthened by an earthen rampart, called, after the Emperor, Antoninus's Wall, and in later times Grimes Dike—that is, the boundary wall.

21. **10. State of the Country.** ^MSouth Britain continued quiet and prosperous under Roman rule till the later part of the third century, when its eastern shores began to be infested by pirates from the opposite shores of the North Sea. The Romans called them Saxons; and in 286 they appointed an officer, with the title "Count of the Saxon Shore," whose special duty it was to watch for and to repel their attacks. Christianity is said to have been introduced into the island by the Romans before the end of the first century. During the fierce persecution kindled by the Emperor Diocletian, in the end of the third century, several Britons suffered death. Chief of them was Alban, who died at Verulam in 304.

11. Withdrawal of the Romans.—At last the incursions of the Goths and other northern tribes into Italy became so frequent

Delish. that the Roman soldiers were withdrawn from Britain to guard the heart of the empire. Levies of British youth were employed in the Roman service, in Gaul and elsewhere on the Continent. In 410, after the sack of Rome by the Goths, the Emperor was compelled to reduce the extent of the empire, and he therefore withdrew from Britain his troops and all signs of his authority.

See map name 12. Effects of Roman Rule.—The Romans taught the Britons to develop the resources of their country. They opened up the island by making roads paved with stone, which were called *strata*, whence the English word “street.” They also laid the foundation of a thriving trade, Rome and her Continental provinces affording a good market for British produce. The Roman towns were military stations, strongly fortified, and were called *castra* or “camps”—a word which may be recognized in various forms in such names as Chester, Winchester, Leicester, and Doncaster. The word *colonia*, a “colony,” can be traced in Lincoln; and Colchester (that is, Colne-chester) is a compound of *colonia* and *castra*.

Mrs. Pal. Athm. Abroad.—In 306 the Roman Empire was divided among six emperors. They fought with one another, and the number was gradually reduced, until in 324 Constantine was sole Emperor. (Born, 272; died, 337.) In 330 Constantine removed the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium; which, after him, was called Constantinople. He chose Byzantium as his capital, because he believed that from it he could better control both the East and the West than from Rome. The Goths at this time occupied the north-east of Europe.

CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| <i>Bel.</i>
<i>Red.</i> | 55 B.C. First invasion of Julius Caesar.
54. Second invasion of Julius Caesar.
43 A.D. Return of the Romans. (tonus.
61. Massacre of the Druids in Mona by Sue.
61. Boadicea's victory at Camulodunum.
61. Defeat and death of Boadicea.
61. Agricola's chain of forts (Clyde and Forth). | 84. Agricola's victory at Mons Graupius.
121. Hadrian's Wall and Rampart (Solway and Tyne).
139. Antoninus's Wall (Clyde and Forth).
210. Severus's Wall (Solway and Tyne).
286. Count of the Saxon Shore appointed.
410. Withdrawal of the Romans. |
|----------------------------|---|--|
- = known.*

GREAT NAMES.

- | | |
|---|--|
| Julius Caesar, Roman general.
Caswallon (Cassivelaunus), British chief in Caesar's time.
Cunobelin (Cymbeline), British chief after Caesar's time.
Aulus Plautius, Roman general, subdued south-east of Britain (47 A.D.). | Ostorius Scapula, Governor of Britain (47-51).
Caradoc (Caractacus), British chief, captured by Ostorius and sent to Rome (50).
Suetonius Paulinus, Governor of Britain (58-62).
Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni.
Julius Agricola, Governor of Britain (78-84).
Alban, British Christian martyr (304). |
|---|--|

BOOK I.—THE OLD ENGLISH KINGDOMS.

449-1066.

CHAPTER I.—THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

449-603.

1. **Helplessness of the Britons.**—The Britons, who had lived in peace under Roman protection, were in a wretched plight when that was withdrawn. The Picts of Caledonia, aided by the Scots from Ireland, broke through the unguarded walls and pillaged the northern country. The Vikings¹ of the North Sea coasts, who had with difficulty been kept in check by the Roman fleets, descended on the east and the south, and sailed up the rivers in their light flat-bottomed skiffs, burning and slaying without mercy. Vortigern, a British prince is said to have asked the aid of the Vikings against the Picts. The men he invited were Jutes, or people of Jutland, men of great size, with blue eyes, ruddy complexion, and yellow hair, and practised in war, using the axe, the sword, the spear, and the mace.

2. **The Coming of the English: 449.**—The story of the Teutonic² settlement in Britain, though it rests mainly on tradition, has no doubt some foundation in fact. It is, that in 449 two Jutish chiefs named Hengest and Horsa,³ were hired by

¹ *Vikings*—that is, “sons of the vic” or *wic*, the Norse word for a bay or creek. The word, therefore, means bay-dwellers, or creekers. It should be remembered that the termination is *-ing*, not *-king*.

² *Teutonic*. One of the seven stocks of the Aryan family of languages. Of this stock there are two branches, the Germanic and the Scandinavian. The Germanic branch is subdivided into Low-

German (English, Friesian, Dutch, Flemish) and High-German (Old, Middle, and Modern). The Scandinavian branch includes Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian, as well as Icelandic and Faroic.

³ *Hengest and Horsa*. “Hengest” means *horse*, and “Horsa” means *mare*. Some have supposed these words to have been titles, and not proper names. The standard of Kent was a horse from early times.

Vortigern, and landed at Ebbsfleet, on the coast of Thanet. After they had repelled the enemies of Vortigern, they turned their arms against himself and seized Kent. For more than a century after that, bands of these Teutonic invaders continued to land on the southern and eastern shores of Britain, driving the inhabitants west and north before them. They came not only as



THE ENGLISH MIGRATIONS.

soldiers to conquer the country, but as colonists to occupy it with their wives and children. The Britons, having for centuries felt the scourge of the Saxons, called all the invaders by that name; but, in truth, they belonged to three tribes—the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles or Anglians. The Jutes from Jutland settled in Kent and on the Isle of Wight. The Saxons, from Holstein¹

¹ *Holstein*, a duchy of Germany (formerly of Denmark), bounded by the Baltic, the Eyder, and the Elbe.

where
were
settled

and Friesland,¹ settled chiefly in the south. The Anglians, from Schleswig,² landed on the east coast, and soon spread over the midland and northern districts, occupying most of the land. All these were kinsmen—brothers, as it were, of the same family. They spoke the same tongue—English; they worshipped the same gods (chief of whom was Odin or Woden), and had the same Valhalla³ for their heaven; and they were ruled by the same laws and customs. When they had made the land their own, they called it after themselves, *Engla-land*, England —“the land of the English.”

3. **The English States.**—The number of independent States⁴ of Kent, had married Bertha, daughter of the Frankish King of Paris, who was a professed Christian. Within a church at Canterbury the chaplain of this lady, Bishop Luidhard, who had come with her from Gaul, held a regular Christian service, to which curiosity, rather than any deeper motive, attracted many of the Kentish people. Æthelbert went on worshipping his idols, Thor and Odin, for fully thirty years after his marriage; but he must in the meantime have grown familiar with some of the doctrines preached in that little chapel of St. Martin. The ground was, therefore, somewhat broken before Augustine and his associates came upon the scene.

7. **Augustine's Mission.**—Pope Gregory had been filled with an earnest desire to win Britain to the faith ever since, while a deacon, his heart had been touched by the sight of some English slave-boys in the Roman market. Hearing that they were Angles, Gregory had said that they should rather have been called “angels.” Learning that they came from the kingdom of Ælla, he foretold that “Alleluia” would yet be sung in Ælla's land. Having selected

prior of the Zuider Zee. The Friesian language closely resembles English.

² Schleswig, north of Holstein. Part of Schleswig (between the Gulf of Flensburg and the Sley) is still called Angeln.

³ Valhalla, in the Scandinavian mythology, the heaven to which the souls of heroes slain in battle were translated. There they were supposed to drink mead out of the skulls of their enemies.

⁴ Independent States. The name “Hep-tarchy” used to be applied to these States, in the belief that there were seven separate settlements, and seven independent kingdoms. But the number of States exceeded seven, while the number of independent States was generally much smaller. When one king acquired supremacy over the others, he was called *Bretwalda*, or Ruler of the Britons.

n. Arthur
 4. **The Britons.**—The Welsh,¹ as the English called the Britons, fought bravely for their country. Their chief leader was Arthur, King of the Silures in South Wales; but most of his history is legendary, having been derived from poets and chroniclers who, long afterwards,² wrote about him and his "Knights of the Round Table." Still there is no reason to doubt that some such popular hero was the leader of the Britons in their resistance to "the heathen," as the Welsh, who were then Christians, called the English. He is credited with a great victory over the West Saxons at Mount Badon (Badbury, Dorset), in 520, which checked the advance of the



THE ENGLISH MIGRATIONS.

remarkable qualities, carried ~~her~~ as colonists to occupy it with Ireland to Iona on the Scottish coast in 563, ~~bent on~~ ^{on} ~~vies~~ ^{with} ~~felt~~ version of the Picts. Even before that, Kentigern (or St.

¹ *Welsh*—that is, "foreigners" or "barbarians." The Greeks, in like manner, called all those who spoke languages which they did not understand "barbarians."

² *Long afterwards.* The legends of Arthur had their origin among the Celts of

Brittany, and were first embodied in history by Geoffrey of Monmouth, who died in 1154, and who derived his information from an old Welsh book of legends of Arthur, brought to England from Brittany by Walter Map.

Mungo) had been consecrated as Bishop of Cumbria, and had planted his church on the banks of the Clyde. In 550 he founded the see of St. Asaph's in Wales; but he returned to Scotland, and met Columba there in 584. There was thus Christianity in England before the arrival of Augustine; but these early churches were almost wholly independent of Rome. Their founders were missionaries in the true sense. Augustine was a shrewd, clever, worldly priest, who came as an ambassador from Rome at the bidding of Gregory the Great, to plant the Papal power on the shores of Britain.

6. **Queen Bertha of Kent.**—Æthelbert, one of the *Aeskings*¹ of Kent, had married Bertha, daughter of the Frankish King of Paris, who was a professed Christian. Within a church at Canterbury the chaplain of this lady, Bishop Luidhard, who had come with her from Gaul, held a regular Christian service, to which curiosity, rather than any deeper motive, attracted many of the Kentish people. Æthelbert went on worshipping his idols, Thor and Odin, for fully thirty years after his marriage; but he must in the meantime have grown familiar with some of the doctrines preached in that little chapel of St. Martin. The ground was, therefore, somewhat broken before Augustine and his associates came upon the scene.

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¹ *Aesking*, meaning "son of the ash-tree," was derived from the surname of Eorik of Kent, Hengest's son, who was called Aesc, or "the ash-tree." The termination *-ing* is the Old English suffix meaning "son of."

lain. A friendly message from Æthelbert encouraged them yet more. Before long, Augustine sent a letter to Gregory announcing the baptism of the Kentish King, and the conversion of many Jutes. Augustine, appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, entered with zeal on the duties of his see. His grand object was to bring all Britain under Roman sway. With that view, he held meetings with the simple priests of the Celts; but they resented the interference of the foreign monk.

8. Paulinus in Northumbria.—About twenty years after the arrival of Augustine, Æthelburh, the daughter of Æthelbert and Bertha, became the wife of King Edwin of Northumbria. She was accompanied to Bamborough Castle by Paulinus, a Christian missionary, through whose preaching Edwin and the Northumbrians were converted to Christianity. In 627 Paulinus became first Archbishop of York.

CHIEF EVENTS.

449. Founding of Kent.
575. Founding of East Anglia.
582. Founding of Mercia.

520. King Arthur's victory at Mount Badon.
597. Conversion of Kent.
627. Conversion of Northumbria.

GREAT NAMES.

Hengest, leader of the Jutes.
Cerdic, founder of Wessex.
Ida, founder of Bernicia.
Edwin, King of Northumbria.
Arthur, King of the Silures; history partly mythical.

Patrick, missionary to the Scots in Ireland (432).
Ninian, missionary in south-west of Scotland (394).

Kentigern, missionary in south-west of Scotland (530).
Columba, missionary to the Picts (563).
Æthelbert, King of Kent.
Bertha of Paris, Æthelbert's queen.
Augustine, missionary to the English; first Archbishop of Canterbury.
Paulinus, missionary to the Northumbrians; first Archbishop of York.

CHAPTER II.—THE MAKING OF ENGLAND.

603-827.

I. Supremacy of Northumbria.—When the English states were not fighting with the Welsh, they were generally engaged in struggling for the mastery over one another. In this struggle the smaller and weaker states had naturally to succumb to the more powerful, and in course of time the number



of independent states came to be greatly reduced. Northumbria was the first to gain the ascendancy. In 603 King Aethelrith of Bernicia seized Deira, drove the North Britons beyond the Forth, and ruled Northumbria from the Forth to the Wash. Four years later, he forced many of the Mercians, including those of Southumbria and Middle Anglia, to submit to him. Kent and Northumbria thus came to be rivals for power in the east of England, as Kent and Wessex were in the south.

King Æthelfrith was slain in 617, and was succeeded by Edwin (Eadwine) of Deira, whom he had dispossessed in 603. Æthelbert had died a year before, and the power of Kent had begun to decline in the hands of his successor. Edwin had little trouble, therefore, in detaching East Anglia and Essex from Kent, and in including them in his own overlordship. He secured the friendship of Kent by marrying Æthelburh, the daughter of Æthelbert. Wessex alone remained powerful enough to dispute his supremacy. In 626 he subdued Wessex, and was then acknowledged as Overlord of all England. He also conquered Anglesey and the Isle of Man, and his supremacy was acknowledged by the Britons. Hence he bore the title of Bretwalda, ruler of the Britons.

6241
H
Penda, King of Mercia,¹ made Edwin's conversion to Christianity a cause of quarrel with him. Penda made himself the champion of the old heathen faith, hoping thereby to recover the independence of his kingdom. He allied himself with the Welsh of Strathclyde, who had for six years been in arms against Edwin. They marched into Northumbria, and in a great battle at Hatfield,² Edwin was slain (633). Thereafter confusion prevailed in Northumbria for a year or two, until Oswald, Edwin's nephew, came to the throne. In 635, Oswald utterly crushed the Welsh of Strathclyde.³

2. Influence of the Church.—The force that first welded the different English states into one was the Church of Rome. The form of the northern Christianity was that of the Scottish or Celtic Church, while the south adhered to the Roman pontiff. In 635, King Oswald, who had spent his exile at Iona, settled Bishop Aidan at Lindisfarne. It became necessary

Abroad.—In 622 the Hegira, or "flight" of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina, took place, which marks the beginning of the era of Mohammedanism. His proclamation of his divine mission so enraged his enemies that he saved his life only by a midnight flight.

¹ Mercia—that is, "the march-land," or border-land, because it was originally the frontier land between the English and the Welsh.

[caster.

² Hatfield, 4 miles north-east of Don-

³ Strathclyde. This district extended from the River Mersey to the Firth of Clyde, including Cumbria (Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire) and Reged (Annandale and Galloway). (Map, p. 31.)

to decide whether there were to be two Churches in England, or one only. To determine the point, King Oswi (Oswald's brother and successor) called a Synod at Whitby in 664. The King himself presided over the Synod. He protested against his kingdom and Church being cut off from the other Christian states of Europe, and by his advice the Synod resolved to own the supremacy of Rome. Then Bishop Aidan and his Culdee monks returned to Iona. Thus the whole country was united in one Church before it was united in one kingdom. But doubtless the one union helped forward the other.

3. Fall of Northumbria.—Meantime the power of Mercia had been growing rapidly under Penda. He made himself master of all England, from the Humber to the Thames. In 642 Oswald tried to wrest East Anglia from him, but he was slain in battle. For some years thereafter Penda was the most powerful King in England; but Northumbria revived under Oswi, who slew Penda, and Mercia once more submitted to Northumbria (655). The struggle was resumed by Wulfere, who greatly extended Mercia, driving the West Saxons south of the Thames, and advancing even to London. But Egrith of Northumbria defeated Wulfere in 683. Two years later, Egrith was slain in battle with the Picts at Nectansmere in the south-east of Scotland, and then the supremacy of Northumbria came to an end; so entirely did the position of each state depend on the personal character and prowess of its ruler.

4. Permanent Influence of Northumbria.—Northumbria continued to be a centre of knowledge and literary activity long after its political importance declined. Caedmon,¹ the earliest

Abroad.—In 637 Omar, the father-in-law and successor of Mohammed (hence called *Kaliph*—that is, “successor”), took Jerusalem, which remained in the hands of the Saracens for upwards of four hundred years. The Saracens were Arabs and Mohammedans. The word *Saracens* means “Orientals,” or Eastern people. Their conquest of Jerusalem was commemorated by the building of the Mosque of Omar, a Mohammedan church built on the site of the Jewish temple.

¹ *Caedmon*, a servant in the monastery. His song of *The Creation* (a paraphrase of Genesis) was inspired in a dream. After awaking, he repeated the inspired words. He was afterwards educated and became a monk. Died about 680.

English poet, and the Venerable Baeda,¹ of Jarrow on the Tyne, were Northumbrians, and so was Cuthbert² of Lindisfarne. It was by the Angles of Northumbria that the common tongue of the Teutonic settlers was first used effectively as a literary instrument in this island; and that probably explains how the tongue and the people came to be called English, and how the land was called England. In the middle of the eighth century, a famous school was founded at York, whence scholars and missionaries were sent to the continent of Europe. It was by its scholars and its churchmen that England was once more brought into alliance with Continental nations, and was made one of the Powers of Europe.

5. **Supremacy of Mercia.**—The fall of Northumbria was followed by a fierce struggle between Mercia and Wessex. For a time Wessex was successful under Ine, who ruled over the whole of South Britain, and who made a famous code of laws. But a change came when Æthelbald succeeded to the throne of Mercia. He was an able King, and subdued not only Wessex but also Sussex, Kent, and Essex, and for twenty years he was owned as Overlord by all England south of the Humber. The greatest of the Mercian kings was Offa, who got the throne in 758. Kent and Essex had recovered their independence, but Offa again brought them under the Mercian yoke. His command of London and Canterbury increased his power in England, and his possession of Kent reopened the intercourse of Mercia with the Continent. In 777 he overthrew Cyne-wulf of Wessex after a severe struggle. He also drove back the Welsh from the Marches, and built a rampart called "Offa's

Abroad.—In 711 the Saracens, under Tarik, the general of Musa, crossing from Africa, penetrated into Spain, and overthrew the Visi-gothic kingdom there. The conquest of Spain was completed by Musa in person. The Saracens conquered Portugal in 713. From Tarik, Gibraltar (the "Rock of Tarik") took its name.

¹ Baeda, the greatest name in Old English literature; born near Monkwearmouth in 673. Wrote, in Latin, *Ecclesiastical History of England*, and an Anglo-Saxon translation of John's Gospel. Died at Jarrow, 735.

² Cuthbert. Born 635. At first a shepherd on the hills of Lauderdale, then a monk of Melrose, and became its prior. He was then translated to Lindisfarne: untiring in duty, zealous in devotion. Died 687. Baeda wrote his life.

Learn better

Dike," from the mouth of the Dee to that of the Wye. He also drew up a code of laws called "Offa's Code," settling the terms on which the English and the Welsh were to live harmoniously. He then annexed East Anglia. In 784, he gained supremacy over Northumbria and Wessex by keeping a son-in-law on the throne of each. Offa was practically Overlord of all England till his death in 794.

6. Supremacy of Wessex.—The rivals of Offa's sons-in-law took refuge at the court of Charles the Great (Charlemagne), King of the Franks, who espoused their cause. On the death of the King of Wessex in 800, Charles sent over Egbert (Egberht), the exiled prince, to claim the throne; and the West Saxons took him for their King. A few years later the exiled prince of Northumbria was restored, and Mercia was thus weakened in the north. In 825 Egbert defeated the Mercians at Ellandun in Wiltshire, and annexed Kent and Essex. Two years later, both Mercia and Northumbria submitted to Wessex, while retaining their own kings. Thus in 827 or 828 Egbert became Overlord of all England. In his charters he sometimes called himself *Rex Anglorum*—"King of the English."

Abroad.—In 800 Charles the Great (Charlemagne) was crowned Emperor of the West at Rome by Pope Leo III., who threw off the authority of the Eastern Empire, because it was held by a woman, the Empress Irene. This was the beginning of what is known in history as the Holy Roman Empire, which subsisted as the German Empire till it was overthrown at the beginning of the present century by Napoleon I. It then became the Empire of Austria.

Sax. with west

CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 603. Bernicia and Deira combined in Northumbria. | 685. Egfrith of Northumbria slain at Nectansumbria. |
| 626. Supremacy of Northumbria. | 784. Supremacy of Mercia. [mere.] |
| 633. Penda's victory at Hatfield. | 779. Offa's Dike built. |
| 664. Synod of Whitby (King Oswy). | 825. Egbert's victory at Ellandun. |
| | 827. Supremacy of Wessex—England made one. |

GREAT NAMES.

Edwin of Deira and Northumbria.
 Æthelburh of Kent, Edwin's queen.
 Penda, King of Mercia, Edwin's rival.
 Egfrith, King of Northumbria.
 Caedmon, first English poet (d. 680).

Cuthbert, Abbot of Melrose and Lindisfarne (d. 686).
 Baeda, the Venerable, Abbot of Jarrow (d. 735).
 Offa, King of Mercia, Cynewulf's rival.
 Egbert, King of Wessex.

CHAPTER III.—THE STRUGGLE WITH THE DANES.

787-1017.

1. The Coming of the Danes: 787.—The Danes or Norsemen began to be troublesome in Egbert's time. They were Scandinavians from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and therefore men of kindred race with the English. As early as 787 they had begun to ravage the north-eastern coast; but in 832 they attacked the south, and forced their way into the heart of the country. They allied themselves with the Welsh of Cornwall, and troubled Wessex greatly on the west. Egbert marched against them in 835, and inflicted on them a great defeat at Hengest's-Down (Hengestesdun) in Cornwall. This, however, was only a temporary check.

787-1017 England dismembered again.—Egbert died in 839, and was succeeded by Æthelwulf, his son. During his reign, and the reigns of three of his sons, the struggle with the Danes continued. In the time of Æthelred I., his third son (866-871), England was dismembered again, and the overlordship of Wessex came to an end as completely as that of Northumbria and of Mercia had done. At Æthelred's death it seemed doubtful whether Wessex would remain in the hands of the English.

767 3. Guthrum King of East Anglia.—Great numbers of Danes landed in East Anglia in 866. In the following year they took York; and Northumbria at once submitted to them. In 870 they conquered East Anglia. They bound Edmund,¹ the King, to a tree, and shot him to death with arrows. Guthrum, the Danish leader, then assumed the crown of East Anglia, and many Danes settled there. Mercia had been previously attacked, and its English King now became tributary to the Dane.

Scotland.—In 843, Kenneth MacAlpine, King of the Scots, conquered the Picts, and united the whole of the country north of the Clyde and the Forth.

¹ *Edmund.* An abbey was built over | around it was called St. Edmundsbury—his tomb; and the town which gathered | now Bury-St.-Edmunds, in Suffolk.

4. **Alfred King: 871.**—Thus, when Alfred succeeded his brother Æthelred in 871, Wessex had lost Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia; and the renewal of the Danish attack on Wessex itself was not likely to be long delayed. Whether England should continue to be ruled by Englishmen, depended mainly on the conduct of Wessex; and the resistance of Wessex depended on the skill and spirit of its young King. Alfred was now in his twenty-second year, and had previously been more remarkable for his love of study than for his warlike spirit. In his zeal for the reform of abuses, he at first excited so much discontent among his subjects, that they were unwilling to face the Danes for the sake of so harsh a ruler. But the ravages of the invaders grew more formidable every day. A battle was fought at Wilton in Wiltshire, in which Alfred was defeated (871). He then entered into negotiations with the Danes, who withdrew from Wessex on receiving a large sum.

5. **The Danes seize Mercia and Northumbria.**—The ravages of the Danes were then carried into Mercia and Northumbria, where they burned and butchered without mercy. In 874, the English King of Mercia fled to Rome; and the Danes gave the throne to one of his nobles, on condition that he should pay tribute to them. In Northumbria they settled on the land, and divided it among themselves, as the English had done four centuries before. Alfred fitted out a fleet to guard his coasts. This fleet did good service, gaining several victories over the Danes, and preventing them from landing. But in 876 they returned in force, and having secured the Welsh as allies, they seized Exeter. Alfred besieged them there in the following spring, and forced them to surrender. They promised to leave Wessex, and retired into Mercia.

6. **Alfred driven from his Throne.**—They returned suddenly in the winter of 878, led by Guthrum, the East-Anglian King. Having taken post at Gloucester, Guthrum made a night-march on Chippenham,¹ a royal villa on the Avon, where Alfred was then residing. The King fled in disguise, and with a few

¹ *Chippenham*, 12 miles north-east of Bath.

followers sought refuge in Somerset. His hiding-place was Athelney,¹ a marshy island formed by the meeting of the rivers Parret and Tone; and there he remained some months, visited at times by his nobles, who were gradually and secretly gathering strength for a fierce and decisive struggle.

7. **Battle of Ethandun: 878.**—Hearing that the Danes had been surprised and beaten by the Earl of Devon, Alfred resolved to strike the blow at once. He is said to have visited the Danish camp in the disguise of a harper. He saw the carelessness of the Danes, heard their plans discussed, and then, stealing from the camp, called his friends together in Selwood Forest. The summons was joyfully welcomed. The English and the Danes met at the foot of Ethandun, a hill in Wiltshire, and Alfred gained a complete victory. He then laid siege to the Danish camp, and in fourteen days forced Guthrum to capitulate.

8. **Treaty of Wedmore: 878.**—Then followed the Treaty of Wedmore (Somersetshire). Guthrum and many of his followers agreed to become Christians, and the chief received in baptism the name Æthelstan. The Danes solemnly vowed to leave Wessex; and they were allowed to hold Essex, East Anglia, and the north-east of Mercia, as vassals of Wessex. The rest of Mercia was annexed to Wessex, and was governed for Alfred by Æthelred, to whom Alfred gave his daughter Æthelfled in marriage. England was thus divided into two parts; the one Danish, the other English. The dividing-line may be drawn roughly from the mouth of the Lea through Bedford to Shrewsbury. North-east of that line was the Danelagh, or country of the Dane-folk. The Mercian part of the Danelagh came afterwards to be called The Five Boroughs, as the five chief towns in it—Derby, Lincoln, Leicester, Stamford, and Nottingham—formed a kind of league for its defence. —

9. **Alfred's Reforms.**—The country now enjoyed a long peace. The Danes and the English were people of the same race, and were so closely allied in speech that they had no difficulty in living together, and by-and-by they became one people. Alfred

¹ *Athelney*—that is, *Ætheling-toge*, or the "Isle of Nobles."

devoted the years of peace to those measures for the improvement of his people which form his best claim to the title Great. He encouraged learning, both by his example and by his laws. He founded schools, and passed a law enforcing on the nobles the education of their children. He also framed a code of laws, in which the chief enactments of Æthelbert and Ine had place; and these he executed with such stern impartiality that crime became rare. He was no less mindful of the defence of his kingdom. He built strong castles, both inland and on the shore, where an enemy could be best withstood. He organized a militia system, according to which all men capable of bearing arms were divided into three sets. One body occupied the towns as garrisons, while the other two were by turns engaged in military service and in the cultivation of the land.

10. Hastings Invasion: 893.—So, in 893, when there was a fresh invasion by Danes, who crossed from France, led by Hasting, Alfred was well prepared to meet them. Hasting landed in Kent, crossed into Essex, and obtained aid from the Danes of East Anglia. They marched right across Mercia into Wales, expecting, no doubt, to get the assistance of the Welsh; but Æthelred, Alfred's son-in-law, followed them, and defeated them with great slaughter at Buttington (Shropshire) in 894. Driven from their stronghold at Chester the following year, the Danes returned to Essex. Alfred and Æthelred marched against them. Their skiffs crowded the Lea; but Alfred, by digging a trench beside the river, shallowed the stream, and caused the Danish vessels to run aground, when they fell an easy prey to his troops. This drove the pirates back to France (895). The rest of Alfred's reign was peace. He died in 901, aged fifty-two, and was succeeded by his son Edward, surnamed "The Elder."

11. The Norse Settlement in France: 912.—While Edward was King, a host of Norsemen, led by Rolf the Ganger,¹ settled in the country of the Franks. In 912, Charles the Simple,

¹ *The Ganger*—that is, "the Goer." Rolf was so called, it is said, because he was so long-legged that none of the small horses of the North could carry him, and he had therefore to perform his expeditions on foot.

King of the West Franks, gave Rolf a piece of land at the mouth of the Seine for himself and his followers, on condition that the Norsemen should become Christians and cease ravaging the Frankish coasts. Rolf and his son added greatly to their territory, which came to be called Normandy, or "the land of the Norsemen." From Rolf and his followers were descended William, Duke of Normandy, and the Normans who conquered England in 1066. Before that time the Normans had become Frenchmen in speech and customs.

2 12. The First King of England: 924.—After the death of Æthelred of Mercia, in 911, his widow Æthelfled ruled with great vigour. She made a determined effort to recover the Five Boroughs from the Danes; and after five years' fighting she captured Derby and Leicester. When she died, in 918, her brother Edward the Elder took the government of Mercia into his own hands, and continued the struggle with the Danes. In this he was so successful that in 924 he was acknowledged as Overlord by all England, and even by the Scots and by the Welsh of Strathclyde and Wales. Thus Edward was not only Overlord of the English—as Edwin and Offa and Egbert had been—but Overlord of all Britain. He was the first to assume the title of King of England; but shortly after achieving this greatness, he died, in 925.

3 13. Battle of Brunanburh: 937.—Æthelstan, Edward's son, was barely seated on the throne when the Northumbrians and the North Welsh revolted. Both revolts were soon quelled; but a more formidable rising occurred in 937, when the Scots, the North Welsh, and the English Danes joined Anlaf of Denmark, who appeared with a great fleet in the Humber. Æthelstan marched against the allies, and defeated them in a great battle at Brunanburh.¹ Edmund I., his half-brother and successor, recaptured all the Five Boroughs from the Danes; and detached the Scots from the Danes by

¹ *Brunanburh.* Said to have been in Lincolnshire; but there is no certainty as to the locality. As, however, the invaders entered the country by the Humber, and

as they would naturally march southwards, the battle is most likely to have been fought in Lincolnshire. Some place it in the Lothians; some in Northumberland.

granting the King of Scots Strathclyde¹ and Cumbria as a fief.

5 14. Policy of Dunstan. — Edred, Edmund's brother, was chosen to succeed him, because Edmund's sons, Edwy and Edgar, were considered too young² to reign. In his reign, Dunstan,³ Abbot of Glastonbury, became prominent in politics. It was mainly owing to his energy that Northumbria was reconquered. On Edred's death (955), he was succeeded by his nephew Edwy, who quarrelled with Dunstan, and banished him from his court and kingdom. Mercia and Northumbria again revolted, and made Edgar, the King's brother, their King. Dunstan was recalled to Mercia by Edgar, who became King of Wessex, also, on his brother's death. In a few years Dunstan was made Archbishop of Canterbury and Chief Minister (959). Dunstan was the first of a long line of clerical statesmen, who were really the prime ministers of England till the Reformation in the sixteenth century. He was a man of learning, of refined taste, and of high aims, and he tried to rule England on the lines of a broad national policy. While he was in power, he held the different states together with firm hand. He also favoured the regular monks as against the secular clergy. In order to break the power of Northumbria, Edgar, by Dunstan's advice, divided it into three portions. Lothian, between the Forth and the Tweed, was given to Kenneth, King of Scots, and formed the nucleus of the Anglo-Scottish kingdom. The remainder was divided into two earldoms—the one from the Tweed to the Tees (Northumberland), the other from the Tees to the Humber (Yorkshire).

¹ *Strathclyde*. As the English States spread over the country, the limits of this district were gradually narrowed. In the seventh century it extended from the upper part of the Great Ouse (modern Northamptonshire) to the north of the Clyde in Scotland. In the tenth century its southern boundary was Morecambe Bay and the river Lune. In the eleventh century the name Cumberland was applied to the whole of Strathclyde.

² *Too young*. At this time the law of primogeniture (by which the eldest born is entitled to succeed) was not always followed. Practically, the Witan (*Witenagemót*, or "council of wise men") elected from the Royal Family the Prince most fit to rule.

³ *Dunstan*. Born near Glastonbury; began monastic training very early, and became abbot while still a young man. He died in 988.

15. **Renewal of Danish Inroads: 980—Dane-geld: 991.**—The Danes renewed their ravages in the year 980. At the same time, Mercia and Northumbria, where the Danish element in the population was large, again broke with Wessex. Æthelred II., who was surnamed "the Unready,"—that is, the *Rede-less*,¹ or the *Rash*,—tried to get rid of the Danes by buying them off. For this purpose he, in 991, levied a tax called *Dane-geld*, amounting to two shillings in the year, upon each *hide*² of land for all classes except the clergy; but this policy had no other effect than to bring the pirates back to the English shores. Each time it was repeated the demands of the Danes increased. Many of them did not actually go away, but settled in Wessex as peaceful citizens.

16. **Massacre of the Danes: 1002.**—To Æthelred's weak mind there then occurred the mad scheme of a general massacre of the Danes in Wessex. The bloody deed was perpetrated ruthlessly on the festival of St. Brice, November 13, 1002. Swend (Swegen), King of Denmark, whose sister Gunhild was among the slain, was furious when he heard of the massacre, and resolved on vengeance. During the next four years his pirate-ships burst on the coasts again and again, and plundered and slew the English. Swend returned in 1013, determined to conquer England. Mercia and Northumbria joined him, and then Wessex was forced to submit, and Swend was proclaimed King. Æthelred fled to the Isle of Wight, and thence to Normandy, the native place of Emma, his second wife. Swend died suddenly in February 1014, when on his way to attack Bury St. Edmunds, leaving his conquests to his son Canute³ (Knut); but the English, having recalled Æthelred,

Abroad.—In 843 France and Germany became independent states by the Treaty of Verdun. Charles ruled France, and Louis Germany: both were grandsons of Charlemagne. Lothaire, a third brother, though the eldest, was defeated by Charles and Louis at Fontenaille, and had to content himself with Italy. In 996 Hugh Capet (succeeded 987) fixed his capital at Paris, and founded the Capetian dynasty in France.

¹ *Rede-less*. A.S. *rede-laes*, hasty; from *red* or *raed*, advice.

² *Hide*. A.S. *hýgid*, a measure of land;

not connected with *hide*, skin. The *hide* of land varied from 100 to 120 acres.

³ *Canute*. Pronounce *Ká-noot*.

supported him so vigorously that Canute was forced in turn to abandon the island. *(B) 117*

17. Canute's Invasion: 1016.—Æthelred, now triumphant, provoked renewed incursions by repeated murders of his Danish subjects; and in 1016 his untiring foe, Canute, once more landed in England. The Dane was pushing towards the capital, leaving a track of blood and ashes behind him, when Æthelred died. He was succeeded by Edmund, his eldest son. Edmund II., surnamed "Ironsides," struggled bravely for seven months to secure the throne of his father, during which London was assaulted twice, without success, by the Danes under Canute. But at last, after a meeting at Alney, an island in the Severn,—where, some writers say, a duel was fought between the rivals,—they agreed to a division of the kingdom; Edmund holding the counties south of the Thames, the Dane those north of it. The Dane-geld was to be levied in both districts alike, but was to be applied to the support of the Danish fleet. A month after this agreement (November 30) Edmund died, by the hand, it was suspected, of Edric Streona, Æthelred's son-in-law—an unscrupulous intriguer who tried to serve his own ends. In the beginning of 1017, Canute was acknowledged as King from one end of England to the other.

Scotland.—In 1018, the Scots defeated the English of Northumbria at Carham, and made the Tweed the boundary between the two countries.

Hallmarks.

CHIEF EVENTS.

- Howen*
- 857. Beginning of Danish inroads.
 - 835. Egbert's victory at Hengest's Down.
 - 870. Danes conquer East Anglia.
 - 871. Alfred's defeat at Wilton.
 - 876. Danes divide Northumbria and Mercia.
 - 878. Alfred driven from his throne.
 - 878. Alfred's victory at Ethandun—Treaty of Wedmore—the Danelagh formed.

- 894. Victory of Æthelred I. at Buttington.
- 895. Hastings' invasion repelled.
- 912. Norse settlement in France. — *Mark.*
- 924. England one kingdom.
- 937. Æthelstan's victory at Brunanburh.
- 991. Dane-geld exacted by Æthelred II.
- 1002. Massacre of St. Brice's Day.
- 1013. England conquered by Swend.

GREAT NAMES.

Guthrum, Danish leader, King of East Anglia.
 Alfred the Great, King of Wessex.
 Rolf the Ganger, Norse leader in France.
 Edward the Elder, Alfred's son, first King of all England.

Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, first great ecclesiastical statesman (959).
 Swend, Danish conqueror of England (1013).
 Edmund Ironside, son of Æthelred II., and Canute's rival.

King = abbat.

CHAPTER IV.—THE DANISH KINGS.

1017-1042.

1. **Canute King: 1017.**—Canute's¹ first care was to remove all rivals. The surviving sons of Æthelred II. were Edwy, Edward, and Alfred. Edwy he caused to be murdered by Edric Streona. Edward and Alfred were in Normandy with their mother, Emma, and were thus out of his reach. He invited Emma to return to England; and he married her, though she was much older than he, promising that the crown should go to his and her children. Edward and Edmund, the infant sons of Edmund Ironside, were conveyed to Sweden, and thence to Hungary; where Edmund died in youth. Edward married Agatha, niece of the Emperor Henry II. Their son was Edgar the Ætheling, whom William the Conqueror excluded from the throne.

2. **The Four Great Earldoms.**—The better to govern his kingdom, Canute divided it into four great earldoms—Wessex, Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria—in connection with which we may note the use of the Danish title Earl (Jarl), instead of the English title Ealdorman. He gave Mercia to Edric Streona, as the reward of his villanies. He gave East Anglia to Thurkill, a Dane, and Northumbria to Eric, his own brother-in-law; and he reserved Wessex for himself. Mistrusting Edric Streona, and with good reason, he caused him to be put to death at London. Though Canute had won the crown by unsparing cruelty, he proved a wise and popular ruler. The object of his policy was to blend Danes and Englishmen; and he was the first man to bring all England under one strong government. To reconcile the English to his rule, he sent most of his Danish soldiers back to Denmark, retaining, however, six thousand men as his house-carls, or body-guard.

3. **Rise of Godwin and Leofric.**—In 1020, Canute made

¹ Canute, son of Swend of Denmark. Normandy, widow of Æthelred II. Reigned Married, for his second wife, Emma of 18 years.

Godwin (Godwine), an Englishman, Earl of Wessex, and about the same time Leofric, another Englishman, Earl of Mercia. These two earls ere long became the most powerful men in England. Godwin heartily supported Canute's policy, and took an active share in his wars. It was through his influence chiefly that the Old English line was restored in 1042; and the King Harold who was slain at Senlac was his son. The earls Edwin and Morcar, who gave so much trouble to William the Conqueror, were grandsons of Leofric.

4. Stories of Canute.—Canute became a favourite with his people, and many interesting stories have been handed down regarding his justice and his wisdom. Whether true or not, these stories show the popular estimate of his character. Having on one occasion killed a soldier in a fit of anger, he laid aside his crown, and imposed on himself a fine nine times greater than the legal sum. Again, at Southampton, he is said to have rebuked the flattery of his courtiers, by setting his chair upon the shore and commanding the waves to retire. While the tide was flowing round his feet, he condemned the folly of those who compared an earthly king to the Great Ruler of the Universe.

5. Canute's Empire.—The claim of this King to the title "Great" rests partly on his wise government, which made England one kingdom; partly, also, on the extent of his dominions. The dream of his life was to be the head of a great northern empire, including the Scandinavian countries and the British Isles. In 1028 he wrested Norway from Olaf the Saint. He also ruled over Denmark and Sweden, as well as over England; and he exacted homage from Malcolm II. of Scotland as Earl of Lothian. But Canute's strong rule was the only bond of union among these countries, and they separated at his death. Soon after he came to the throne he embraced Christianity, and in his later days he endowed monasteries and built churches. He went, staff in hand, clad in pilgrim's gown, to Rome (1027). There he obtained from the Pope exemption for English pilgrims from the heavy dues then levied on travellers. He also introduced the Christian faith

into Denmark. He died at Shaftesbury, and was buried at Winchester. By his first wife, Elgiva of Northampton, he had two sons, Swend and Harold. His second wife, Emma, widow of Æthelred, bore him a son and a daughter—the former named Hardicanute (Harthacnut). To Swend was allotted Norway; Harold seized England; while Hardicanute was forced to content himself with Denmark.

6. Harold I.¹ King: 1035.—By Canute's desire the crown of England was to have devolved on Hardicanute; but Harold, surnamed "Harefoot," seized it without delay. The Witan, meeting at Oxford, divided the country between the rival princes—assigning to Harold, London and the counties north of the Thames; to Hardicanute, the district south of that river. The latter, however, trifled away his time in Denmark. In 1036, Alfred and Edward, the sons of Æthelred and Emma, were treacherously enticed to England. Alfred met a cruel death at Ely, where his eyes were torn out by the officers of Harold. Edward, afterwards King, escaped to Normandy. Emma in alarm fled to the court of Baldwin, Count of Flanders, where Hardicanute joined her. Harold died at Oxford in 1040, after an inglorious reign of five years.

7. Hardicanute² King: 1040.—Hardicanute (Harthacnut) was on his way to England with a large fleet, when he heard of Harold's death. On his arrival, he was at once acknowledged King; but great discontent was excited by the oppressive taxes he imposed. He wreaked a poor revenge on Harold's dead body, which was by his order dug up, beheaded, and flung into the Thames. The blame of Alfred's murder was by many, though without any good reason, cast upon Earl Godwin, and he lost favour with the King; but his peers having sworn to his innocence, he regained his power. Hardicanute died suddenly at Lambeth in 1042, at the marriage-feast of a Danish noble, and was buried at Winchester.

Scotland.—In 1039, Macbeth murdered King Duncan and seized the throne.

¹ Harold I., son of Canute and Elgiva of Northampton.

² Hardicanute, son of Canute and Emma of Normandy.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1017. Reign of Canute, till 1035.

1017. The Four Great Earldoms established.

1027. Canute's visit to Rome.

1028. Conquest of Norway.

1035. Reign of Harold I., till 1040.

1040. Reign of Hardicanute, till 1042.

GREAT NAMES.

Canute the Great, greatest of the Danish kings.

Emma of Normandy, widow of Æthelred II., and wife of Canute.

Edward, son of Edmund Ironside.

Godwin, Earl of Wessex.

Leofric, Earl of Mercia.

Alfred, son of Æthelred and Emma, murdered at Ely.

Edward, son of Æthelred and Emma, afterwards King.

CHAPTER V.—THE ENGLISH RESTORATION.

Edward & Emma 1042-1066.

Robert,
Edgar,
Alfred
1. Edward, the Confessor,¹ King: 1042.—Edward, son of Æthelred and half-brother of Hardicanute, being then in England, received the crown. He owed this chiefly to the influence of Godwin, whose power had been steadily growing ever since Canute's death. Edward the Ætheling, the surviving son of Edmund Ironside, had a prior claim to the throne; but this was forgotten, probably because he was resident abroad. So great was the joy with which the people hailed the restoration of the English line, that Edward was permitted to take back all grants that had been made by his predecessors—an act rendered necessary by the poverty of the throne.

2. Norman Influence.—But Edward was an Englishman in name only. His mother was a Norman, and he had lived for twenty-seven years at the Norman Court. It is not surprising, therefore, that he regarded with peculiar favour the friends of his exile, and bestowed upon Normans some of the chief offices of State. The French language and French fashions were adopted at the English Court. The King had French chaplains, some of whom he made bishops; and he surrounded himself with a French body-guard.

3. Godwin's Revolt.—This displeased the English, and Earl

¹ Edward, son of Æthelred II. and daughter of Earl Godwin. Reigned 24 years.
Emma of Normandy. Married Edith, years.

Godwin became their champion. Godwin's power was now at its greatest. The King had married the Earl's daughter Edith (Eadgitha). His own earldom embraced all England south of the Thames. One son, Harold, was Earl of East Anglia; another son, Swend, possessed most of Mercia. Godwin's great influence aroused the jealousy of the King's Norman friends, who soon found an opportunity of matching their power with his. In 1051 a bloody fray had taken place at Dover, a town under Godwin's protection, between the burghers and the retainers of Eustace, a Norman Count who had married the King's sister. Edward, instigated by his Norman favourites, commanded Godwin to punish the rebellious citizens; but the Earl took the field rather than submit. A delay took place, until the Great Council should decide the points in dispute. In the meantime, Godwin's army fell away from him, for his grasping policy was by no means liked by the English. He and his family were forced to seek refuge abroad, some in Flanders and some in Ireland. The Queen was deprived of her lands, and placed in custody of Edward's sister, the Abbess of Wherwell, in Hampshire. When the revolt began, Edward asked aid from William, Duke of Normandy; but before the fleet of that Prince appeared off the English shore, all need for help had passed away. Nevertheless, the Norman landed with his knights, and was hospitably entertained by Edward, who, it is related, promised to name him heir to the crown. William heard French spoken on all sides, and noted many other signs of Norman influence.

4. **Death of Godwin—Harold's Power.**—When Godwin and his sons returned in 1052, the English refused to fight against them; and the King, by advice of Stigand, Bishop of East Anglia, made a truce with them, and referred the dispute to the Witan. Thereupon the Norman bishops and nobles fled, some to Scotland and some beyond the seas. The Witan restored Godwin and his sons to their lands, and outlawed the foreigners. But Godwin did not long enjoy his triumph. He died early in the next year, and his son Harold succeeded both to his earldom of Wessex and to his leadership of the National party. In

1054, Siward, Earl of Northumbria, led a large army into Scotland, dethroned Macbeth, and restored Malcolm, a son of the murdered Duncan. On the death of Siward, in the following year, the Witan gave his earldom to Tostig, Harold's brother. This still further extended Harold's power. At this time the two other earldoms were also held by members of one family,—Mercia by Leofric, and East Anglia by Leofric's son, Ælfgar. Ælfgar, charged with treason and outlawed, fled to Wales. In 1055, he joined the Welsh King in an invasion of England. Harold was sent against them, and both then and afterwards gained great glory by his victories over the Welsh. He imposed on the Welsh a law dooming every Welshman found east of Offa's Dike to lose his right hand.

5. **Return of the Ætheling: 1057.**—To remove the danger of a disputed succession, Edward, by the advice of the Witan, sent for Edward the Ætheling, son of Edmund Ironside, then an exile in Hungary. He came with his wife, Agatha, and three children, Edgar, Margaret, and Christina; but he died soon after his arrival. About this time Harold, having been shipwrecked on the Norman coast, was captured by William, and, it is said, was made to swear over sacred relics to support his claim to the English throne.

6. **The Earldoms.**—In the same year Earl Leofric died, and was succeeded in Mercia by his son Ælfgar, who had been restored to his earldom of East Anglia. The latter earldom was then given to Gyrth, another brother of Harold, who handed over Essex and Kent to a third brother, Leofwine. Thus the whole of England was held by the four sons of Godwin, except that part which belonged to their rival, Ælfgar. We hear little during all these years about King Edward, who was busily engaged with those holy works which afterwards gained for him the title "Confessor." It seems as if the earldoms were overshadowing the kingdom, and as if the struggles of Edwin and Penda, of Offa and Cynewulf, were being revived. Ælfgar died about 1064, and was succeeded by his son Edwin. In the following year the Northumbrians expelled Tostig, in consequence of his cruelties, and chose Morcar (Morkere), an-

other son of Ælfgar, to be their Earl. Tostig, who blamed Harold for the revolt of his subjects, retired to Flanders to scheme ways of avenging himself on his brother.

7. **Harold II.¹ King: 1066.**—Before these plans were ripe, Edward died, and Harold was at once chosen King by the Witan (Jan. 5, 1066). Edgar the Ætheling, being thought too young to wear the crown in times so threatening, was consoled with the earldom of Oxford. Edward the Confessor was in his sixty-sixth year when he died. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, which had been erected by himself on the site of an old church to St. Peter. About a century after his death his name was ranked among the saints of the Roman Catholic Church.

8. **Tostig's Invasion: Sept.**—It was not the fate of Harold to wear his crown in peace; for, from the day of his accession, the dread of a Norman invasion haunted him. William resolved to stake on the issue of a battle the crown, which he claimed as his own by the bequest of the Confessor; and all Normandy resounded with preparation. Meanwhile other foes descended on the shores of England. Harold Hardrada,² King of Norway, and Tostig, the outlawed brother of Harold, sailed up the Humber, and landed at Selby on the Ouse. They defeated Edwin and Morcar near York, and the Northumbrians submitted to them. Harold, whose wife was a sister of the northern earls, pushed northward to aid them. He fell on the invaders unawares at Stamford Bridge, on the Derwent, north-east of York, and routed them utterly, both Tostig and Hardrada being among the slain.

Danish = Saxon
CHIEF EVENTS.

1042. Reign of Edward the Confessor, till 1066.

1042. Introduction of Norman influence.

1051. Revolt of Earl Godwin.

1054. Siward, Earl of Northumbria, restored Malcolm III. of Scotland.

1055. Harold's defeat of the Welsh.

1057. Revival of the great earldoms.

1055. Tostig expelled from Northumbria.

1066. Reign of Harold II. (Jan. till Oct.).

1066. Tostig's invasion—Harold's victory at Stamford Bridge (Sept.).

1066. William's victory at Hastings (Oct. 14).

Finley
¹ Harold II., son of Earl Godwin. Married Ealdgyth, daughter of Ælfgar of Mercia. Reigned 9 months.

² Hardrada—that is, "Hard in rede; determined in counsel." He had fought in Africa and Sicily.

Edwin + Morcar = Harthgar.

GREAT NAMES.

Edward the Ætheling, son of Edmund Ironside.
 William, Duke of Normandy, afterwards King.
 Stigand, Bishop of East Anglia, afterwards of Winchester and Archbishop of Canterbury.
 Godwin, Earl of Wessex and Kent.
 Harold, Godwin's son, Earl of East Anglia, afterwards King.
 Siward, Earl of Northumbria.
 Malcolm III. of Scotland.
 Tostig, son of Godwin, Earl of Northumbria

Ælfgar, Earl of Mercia and East Anglia.
 Edwin, son of Ælfgar, Earl of Mercia.
 Morcar, son of Ælfgar, Earl of Northumbria.
 Edgar the Ætheling, son of Edward and grandson of Edmund Ironside.
 Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, defeated at Stamford Bridge.
 Gyrrh, son of Godwin, Earl of East Anglia.
 Leofwine, son of Godwin, Earl of Essex and Kent.
 Baldred, English Archbishop of York.

CHAPTER VI.—THE NORMAN INVASION.

1066.

1. The Landing of William: Sept. 29, 1066.—The Battle of Stamford Bridge was fought on the 25th of September: on the 29th, William and his Normans landed without opposition on the coast of Sussex, near Pevensey.¹ Marching next day along



the shore to Hastings,² he established there a strong camp, and from this centre the Norman ravages spread far and wide. News of the Norman landing reached Harold at York. Without delay the King hurried to London, calling, as he marched southward, on all true Englishmen to defend their native land.

¹ *Pevensey*, in Sussex, 5 miles south-west of Hailsham, is now a little village of 412 inhabitants. It is supposed to represent the old British town of *Anderida*. A castle, whose ruins still exist, and a harbour of some size, made it important about the time of the Conquest. *Pevensey* gives its name to one of the six *Rapes* into which

Sussex has been long divided. The origin of the word "*Rape*" is unsettled.

² *Hastings*, a borough in Sussex, lies on the shore, sheltered by hills, about 64 miles from London. Kemble supposes it to have been the fort of the *Haestingas*. *St. Leonards-on-Sea*, once a mile off, has now grown and joined *Hastings*.

He received hearty support from East Anglia and Wessex—indeed, from all the south of England; but his brothers-in-law, Edwin and Morcar, whose lands he had saved, held aloof through jealousy. They were willing to fight for their own earldoms, but not for Harold's crown. Some of Harold's friends counselled delay, until the whole strength of the kingdom could be hurled upon the invaders. Harold rejected the advice, in the belief that by a sudden dash he could surprise the enemy. When he found that impossible, he turned abruptly in his march, and took up a strong position on the Hill of Senlac,¹ about seven or eight miles from Hastings.

2. **The two Armies.**—The English army, consisting mainly of foot-soldiers armed with battle-axes, crowned the ridge of Senlac Hill, where Battle Abbey now stands. With shields locked together, they stood shoulder to shoulder in a solid mass. The line was protected in front by a trench and a stockade, as Harold intended to act on the defensive. The men of Kent stood in the van, for theirs was the privilege of striking the first blow in an English battle. Scattered among the ranks, or marshalled in separate bands, were hundreds of peasants, armed only with forks, slings, or sharpened stakes. The Norman army included horsemen armed with swords and lances, and many of the infantry were archers. In every point of equipment, discipline, and experience, the army of William was vastly superior to that of Harold.

3. **The Norman Attack.**—On the morning of Saturday, October 14th, the Normans began the attack. Having to fight uphill, their footmen could make no impression on the English, who stubbornly stood their ground, and made dreadful havoc with their axes and javelins. The Norman horsemen were not more successful. Twice they charged, and twice they were driven back broken and dispirited. The success of the English

¹ The year after the Conquest, William began to build Battle Abbey on the field of his victory, placing, it is said, the high altar on the spot where Harold fell. The abbey, dedicated to St. Martin and filled with Benedictine monks from France,

stood on a gentle rise overlooking a richly-wooded country. The ruins of a later building on the same site still exist. The place is 8 miles north-west of Hastings. A town called Battle (anciently *Epiton*) stands there now.

led to their ruin. In their eagerness they rushed downhill after the retreating foe. William noticing this, ordered his left wing to feign flight. The English followed. The horse-men turned and engaged them, and while they were thus occupied another Norman division gained the crest of the hill through the breach in the stockade which the English had made. A terrible hand-to-hand fight followed on the top of the ridge. Gyrth and Leofwine, the King's brothers, fell fighting valiantly. Harold¹ still held his ground beneath his standard, and surrounded by the bravest of his followers. William ordered his archers to shoot into the air, so that their arrows should fall on the heads of the English. An arrow pierced Harold's left eye, and he fell dead. The English resisted no longer. Harold's body, recognized next morning by Edith of the Swan's Neck, was buried on the beach, but was afterwards placed in Waltham Abbey, which he had founded.

4. **Election of Edgar.**—After the battle, the Duke pushed on to Dover, which surrendered. There he received reinforcements from Normandy, but illness delayed his march on London till the end of November. In the meantime, the Witan had appointed Edgar the Ætheling King; his chief supporter being Stigand, now Archbishop of Canterbury. Edwin and Morcar, who went to London after Harold's death, consented to his election, hoping that, as he was a young man, their influence would increase; but they immediately left for their earldoms. Having burned Southwark, William marched up the south bank of the Thames to Wallingford, where he crossed the river. He then marched eastward again, and fixed his camp at Berkhamstead (Hertfordshire), to cut off communication with the north. The English saw that further resistance was hopeless, and Ealdred, Archbishop of York, in name of the Witan, offered the crown to William.

¹ *Harold.* For picturesque descriptions of these scenes, and of this King's character, see Lord Tennyson's drama, "Harold."

CHAPTER VII.—ANGLO-SAXON INSTITUTIONS.

1. **Causes of Change.**—The institutions of the English people changed very considerably during the four or five centuries that intervened between the settlement of the different tribes and the consolidation of England under King Egbert. The conflict with the Britons, the rivalry of the petty kingdoms, and the struggle with the Danes, all had an influence on the condition of the people, the forms of government, and the distribution of power.

2. **The Kingship.**—The nature and the power of the Kingship changed quite as much as anything else. The title of the head of each tribe in early times was Ealdorman (Elderman). Only when several tribes or petty states were conjoined under a single ruler, or for their common defence, did the title of King come into use. The title was both hereditary and elective—that is to say, a new King was chosen by the chief men of the council of the state from the family of his predecessor. As the King was an actual ruler, the office could not be held by a child, and therefore a brother of a deceased King was often preferred to any of his sons, if they were young.

3. **Ealdormen and Thegns.**—When the chief Ealdorman became King, the title Ealdorman was retained by the chiefs who ruled over the subordinate states. The Ealdormen thus formed a body of nobles around the King. It was customary for each Ealdorman to surround himself with a band of young warriors who were personally attached to him as their lord (*hlaford*, bread-giver), and who were called gesiths, or comrades. These gesiths were rewarded for their services with grants of the lands they had helped to conquer. But they did not cultivate these lands themselves. They employed for that purpose labourers, called laets,¹ who settled on the land in village communities. They supported themselves with part of its produce, and in times of war they followed their master to the

¹ *Laets*. A.S. *laet*, "a person enjoying nearly all the privileges of a freeman."—Bosworth.

field. In the relation of ealdorman to gesith, and of gesith to labourer, we have something closely resembling the vassalage of the Feudal System. When the ealdormen became powerful, their gesiths undertook certain duties in their households or courts, and received the title of *thegns*—that is, servants. In later times there were greater thegns and lesser thegns—the latter being dependent on the former.

4. Different Classes of the People.—There were four ranks or classes of the people—(1) the *Eorls*, or men of noble birth: this class included the ealdormen and the thegns; (2) the *Ceorls*, or freemen: they had their own homesteads, and shared in the common land or *folkland* of the tribe; (3) the *Laets*, or dependent labourers, who were in a sense freemen also, though they had no share in the land, and laboured for the thegns; (4) the *Theows*, or slaves—men who had lost their freedom, or had been degraded for some crime. In the tenth century, and as a consequence of the struggle with the Danes, many *ceorls* or freemen were forced to seek the protection of powerful thegns, in return for which they laboured for a certain time on the land of their superior. Thus were many freemen transformed into *serfs*, who differed from slaves only in that they could not be sold, and could not be removed from the land on which they laboured.

5. Courts.—The unit or starting-point in the organization of government was the *Township* or village community. A collection of townships formed a *Hundred*—originally a division comprising one hundred heads of families. It furnished one hundred fighting-men to the tribal army, and one hundred assessors to the judicial court of the chief. A collection of hundreds formed a *Tribe*, in later times a *Shire*. There was a court or *Town-mote* in every township, presided over by the town-reeve, who was elected by the freemen. The *Hundred-mote*, or court of the hundred, consisted of four freemen and the reeve from every township, together with the *eorls* and *thegns* of the hundred. The chief duty of the court was to settle disputes about property, but it had also power to try criminal cases. The highest court in each tribe was the *Folk-*

mote, or *Shire-mote*, presided over by the shire-reeve (sheriff), who was appointed by the King, beside whom sat the ealdorman, or chief of the tribe, who was its military leader. To this court also each township sent its reeve and four freemen. It met twice a year, and dealt with cases affecting men belonging to different hundreds, or with those that were too important for a local court to take up. The division of the country into shires dates from the end of the eighth or the beginning of the ninth century. As most of the midland shires are named after towns—for example, Derbyshire, Bedfordshire, Oxfordshire—we must infer that the towns were places of note before the shires were constituted. Many of the shires were the old sub-kingdoms—for example, Kent, Sussex, Essex, Middlesex. Besides the free *Townships*, there were townships formed on the lands of the thegns by the labourers who dwelt on them and cultivated them. The town-reeve in this case was appointed by the thegn. Such dependent townships, called *manors*, differed from the free townships in this especially, that the rights and privileges which in the latter belonged to the freemen, were in the former vested in the thegn. When towns became important, *burgh-motes* were held in them. Smaller meetings called *hall-motes* and *ward-motes* were also common.

6. **The Witena-gemôt.**—After the consolidation of England as a single state, the highest court of the nation was called the *Witena-gemôt* (meeting of wise men), or simply the *Witan*. It was a national assembly, consisting of the King, who was its president, the ealdormen, the greater thegns, and the clergy of all degrees. It met generally twice a year—at Easter and at Christmas; and the places at which its meetings were most frequently held were London, Gloucester, and Oxford. Its jurisdiction was both civil and criminal, and the fact that it elected the King made it the supreme body in the state; but the King sometimes made himself powerful enough to set the Witan at defiance. The Witan made new laws, and its sanction was necessary when the King made grants of any part of the folkland. After the Norman Conquest, the Witena-gemôt be-

came the Great Council of the King, and the great landowners who were its members received the French title of Barons. Two centuries later the Great Council became the English Parliament.

7. **The Land.**—Part of the land was the common property of the tribe, and was called *Folkland*. Part of it was personal property, and having been granted by charter, was called *Bocland* (bookland). The folkland was apportioned among the hundreds and the townships. All the villagers helped to till the arable land, and each drove his swine to the woods to feed on beech-mast and acorns, and his sheep and oxen to the common pasture. The portion assigned to each household was called the *hide*. The bookland, as already explained, was cultivated by dependent labourers for the *gesiths* or *thegns* to whom it belonged.

8. **The Army.**—Every man was required to fight for his hearth and home. The general levy of freemen, called the *fyrð*, was a kind of national militia, of which the ealdorman was the leader in each tribe or sub-kingdom, while the King was commander of the whole. The *gesiths* or *thegns* attached to each ealdorman formed the nucleus of a standing army; and in time of war they led into the field their labourers or *laets*. Men were more willing to fight for their own tribe than for the whole country. The East Anglians did not feel called on to defend the Mercians against the Welsh. The men of Kent did not care to leave their farm work in order to aid the Northumbrians against the Scots. King Alfred remodelled the army by dividing the *fyrð* into two sections, one of which remained at home while the other went into the field. After the Conquest, William retained the *fyrð* of English villagers as a check on his Norman followers.

9. **Were-gild.**—On the life of every freeman was set a price, called *were-gild*¹ (that is, "a man's price"). It varied, according to the rank of the man, from two hundred to six thousand shillings. When a man was killed, the murderer, on conviction,

¹ *Were-gild*. *Were* is A.S. *wer*, a man, = *Cant-wara-byrig*, the burg of the men of skin to Lat. *vir*. It appears in Canterbury Kent.

paid were-gild to the widow or heir of his victim. A transgressor of the law forfeited his were-gild instead of his life to the King. Were-gild was also paid for less heinous offences—for causing the loss of an eye, or a hand, or a foot.

10. **Compurgation and Ordeal.**—Before regular courts of justice were instituted, there were two methods by which a man accused of crime could clear himself. The first, called *compurgation*, was by swearing publicly to his innocence, and bringing a number of his neighbours—from four to seventy-two, in proportion to the offence—to confirm his oath. If this plan failed, recourse was had to the *ordeal*, or an appeal to the gods. The forms most used were by hot water, and by fire. For the former, a caldron of boiling water was set in the church, and a piece of stone or of iron was placed in it. Before witnesses, the accused plunged his bare arm into the water and took out the weight. The priest, wrapping the scalded limb in clean linen, set on it the seal of the Church. It was opened on the third day, and if the wound was perfectly healed, the accused was pronounced innocent. In the ordeal by fire, the prisoner either walked barefoot on a red-hot iron ploughshare or grasped in his right hand a red-hot iron bar for a few moments. Innocence or guilt was decided in the same manner as in the ordeal by water.

11. **Houses.**—The houses of the English improved very much during the six centuries of this period. At first they were nothing better than thatched huts, with holes in the walls to admit the light. Even the cathedrals and the houses of the kings were built of wood. About the seventh century masonry was used for the lower part of the chief buildings. The few still existing specimens of architecture ascribed to this period are built of small rough stones, in a rude and massive style. But the evidence that these belong to this age is very doubtful.

12. **Religion.**—When the Angles and the Saxons settled in Britain, their religion was that form of heathenism that prevailed among the Scandinavian tribes. Their gods were deified heroes—Thor, the thunderer; Woden or Odin, the god of war; Tiw, the national god of the Teutons; Frigu, the wife of Woden. They dedicated each day of the week to a particular

deity ; and we still name the days after their fashion. Sunnan-daeg (Sunday) and Monan-daeg (Monday) were set apart for the worship of the great lights of heaven ; Tiwes-daeg (Tuesday), Wôdenes-daeg (Wednesday), Thunres-daeg (Thursday), and Frige-daeg (Friday), were sacred to the gods Tiw, Woden, Thor (the thunderer), and the goddess Frigu ; while Saeter-daeg (Saturday) was devoted to the service of Saturn, a god borrowed from the Roman mythology. Though Christianity had been introduced into Britain before the time of Augustine, it was not till he and his followers landed in Kent that heathenism was overthrown.

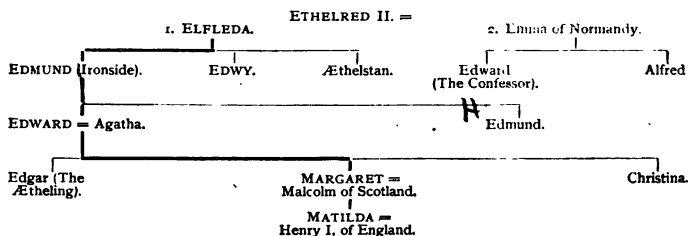
13. **The Monasteries.**—The Old English priests spent their leisure in the practice of many arts. Painting on glass and working in metals were favourite employments of even the highest ecclesiastics ; and not a few churches owed their bells and their coloured windows to the monks and their assistants. The monasteries were then, as they continued to be for centuries, almost the only seats of learning. The “Anglo-Saxon Chronicle” was entirely the work of monks. The earliest writers of mark — Caedmon, Aldhelm, Baeda, Asser, Ælfric — were either churchmen or were closely connected with monastic life.

14. **The Language.**—It must not be forgotten that the great body of the pure English tongue, as we read it in the Bible and the Pilgrim’s Progress, as we speak it in the street and by the fireside, has come down to us from the Old English period. The Danes and the Normans and other later influences modified it greatly, but they made no essential alteration on its structure. The language has continued, through all changes of the nation, to be in spirit and in structure essentially one, from the days of Egbert to the days of Victoria.

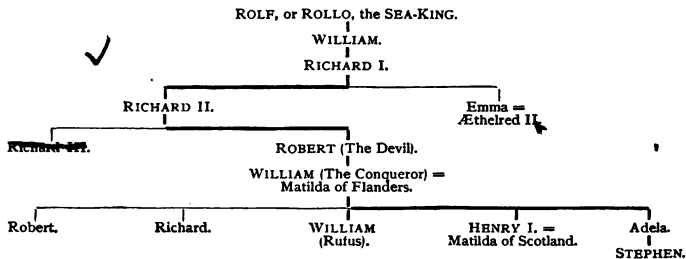
GENEALOGICAL TREES

CONNECTING THE OLD ENGLISH AND NORMAN LINES.

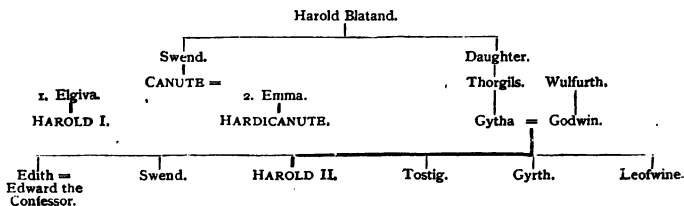
THE OLD ENGLISH LINE.



THE NORMAN LINE.



THE DANISH KINGS AND HOUSE OF GODWIN.



BOOK II.—FEUDAL MONARCHY.

1066-1509.

REIGN OF WILLIAM I. (NORMAN).

1066-1087.

CHAPTER I.—COMPLETION OF THE CONQUEST.

1. **Coronation of William.**¹—The Conqueror was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas-day by Archbishop Ealdred, the Normans regarding Stigand as a usurper. When the Archbishop asked the English if they received William as their King, they assented with shouts. The Normans around the abbey, mistaking the applause for a hostile demonstration, set fire to the houses in the neighbourhood. All rushed from the church. William and the prelates stood alone by the altar, and in haste and fear the oath was taken and the ceremony abruptly closed. William claimed the crown, not by right of conquest, but as the heir of Edward the Confessor, and as the King chosen by the Witan, whose authority he recognized. In order to conciliate the English people, he retained the English laws, granted a new charter to the citizens of London, and received Edgar the Ætheling among his friends. But he placed all real power in the hands of Normans. He confiscated the lands of

¹ *William I.* (the Conqueror), son of Robert, sixth Duke of Normandy. Born 1027. Married Matilda, daughter of Baldwin V., Earl of Flanders. Issue, four sons and six daughters. Reigned 21 years. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 60.)

those English nobles who had fought against him at Senlac, and he fined those who had not come to help him, their lawful sovereign. With the confiscated lands he rewarded his Norman followers, some of whom he forced the widows or the daughters of English landowners to marry. At the same time he allowed many of the English to retain portions of their estates.

2. **Extent of his Power.**—William called himself King of England, but as yet he was master of only the south-eastern corner. His authority was not acknowledged beyond the Nen and the Avon. Though Edwin and Morcar had nominally submitted to him in London, they were practically independent when they withdrew to their earldoms of Mercia and Northumbria. William's work during the next few years consisted in reducing the disaffected earls and their earldoms to submission. It took him five years to finish the task.

3. **Revolts of the English: 1067–1068.**—Three months after his coronation (March 1067), he passed over to Normandy, carrying in his train every English noble whom he suspected of treachery. Not only Edgar the Ætheling and Archbishop Stigand were of the number, but also, it is said, the Earls Edwin, Morcar, and Waltheof. (His friend Fitz-Osbern, Earl of Hereford, and his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent, were appointed Regents; and they ruled with a rod of iron. They built castles in all the most important towns, to keep the English in subjection. The English rose against them in Kent. When Odo had trampled out the flame of insurrection there, it broke forth with greater violence in Hereford. William, dreading foreign interference, returned to England in December. To punish the English who had revolted, he seized their lands and divided them among his Norman followers, and laid heavy taxes on the people. Early in 1068, a revolt in the west was instigated by Gytha, Harold's mother; but it was extinguished by the fall of Exeter. Edwin and Morcar, who had raised the standard of rebellion in the north, were surprised and forced to yield, and Robert Comin, a Norman, was made Earl of Northumberland. York opened its

gates, and Malcolm of Scotland did homage to William for Cumberland.

4. **The Harrying of the North: 1069-1070.** ⁴ The English of the north rebelled again in January 1069. They massacred Comin and a body of Norman horse at Durham, and laid siege to York. They were joined by Edgar the Ætheling, who had been for some time the guest of Malcolm at Dunfermline. A Danish squadron arrived with timely help, and York was captured by the English. The King again marched northward. He made an agreement with the Danes, who withdrew on receiving a sum of money. He then carried the northern capital at the sword's point, and there he passed the winter. He traversed York and Durham with sword and fire, taking a revenge so terrible that from the Ouse to the Tyne there stretched for half a century a vast wilderness, studded with blackened ruins, its soil unbroken by the plough. On his southward march, in the spring of 1070, he left garrisons of Norman soldiers in many strong castles. This completed the subjugation of the north.

5. **Punishment of the English.**—No dignity, no power, very little land were now permitted to remain with the English. They were subjected to hardships of many kinds. They suffered equally from the exactions of the King and from their oppression by the nobles. Under the law of Englishry, for example, every unidentified corpse was assumed to be that of a Norman, and the English were held answerable for the death. The monasteries, which were the banks of that time, were rifled by the royal officers without remorse. The English prelates, too, were obliged to resign their cathedrals to Norman strangers. Of the latter, the most distinguished was Lanfranc, an Italian by birth, who, in August 1070, was made Archbishop of Canterbury in room of Stigand, who was deposed. Many of the English landholders, when driven from their estates, fled into the woods, and kept up an incursive warfare.

6. **Hereward the Wake: 1071.**—Of these, Hereward the Wake (that is, the Watchful) was the most noted. Having been deprived of his lands in Lincolnshire, he expelled the

Norman intruder. He was declared an outlaw, and retired to "The Camp of Refuge," in the Isle of Ely, surrounded by marshes. There, joined by Earl Morcar, whose brother Edwin had been killed on the Scottish border, and by many other desperate spirits, he long bade defiance to William. All the efforts of the Norman soldiery, aided by the spells of witchcraft, could not avail to reduce this stronghold, until a broad causeway was built across the encircling fens, by means of which the place was stormed in 1071. Doubt hangs over the fate of Hereward,¹ but it is said that he afterwards became a peaceful subject. Malcolm of Scotland, who had lately married Margaret, sister of Edgar the Ætheling,² now felt himself forced to be on a friendly footing with the Conqueror, though he refused to deliver up the English refugees who had fled to the north. He did homage to William a second time, in 1072, but only for Cumberland. Then may the Norman Conquest be said to have been at last completed.

CHAPTER II.—FEUDALISM IN ENGLAND.

Before 1. Military Tenure of Land.—The lands of the English which William divided among his Norman followers were held by them on condition of military service being rendered in return. Thus there was introduced into England the Feudal System, which continued to hold great power over English society during the next four hundred years. There were, as we have seen, some traces of a similar plan among the English. Their thegns were the liegemen of the King, and many free-men sought protection by engaging themselves to thegns under a military tenure. But William made the system general. He introduced, with a few modifications, that form of feudalism which had been developed on the Continent. The system derived its name from *feudum*, a piece of land given in *fee*—that is, as a reward for services rendered.

¹ Hereward. See Charles Kingsley's story, "Hereward the Wake."

² In 1074, Edgar the Ætheling, by Malcolm's advice, submitted to William.

2. Constitution of the Feudal Army.—The foundation of the system was that the King owned all the land: he allotted large districts to the nobles; they subdivided these among the gentry; these, again, sublet their land to their vassals—in every case the higher requiring from the lower service in war. When the King needed an army, he summoned his barons or *tenants-in-chief*; ¹ they called to arms their *sub-tenants*; these, their *vassals* and retainers: and thus a large force was gathered around the royal standard. *Knight-service* and *socage* were required from every tenant—the former obliging him to serve, at the call of his *suzerain*, or feudal lord, for so many days in the field of war; the latter, to give occasional days to labour on the lord's lands. The English landholders who retained their lands were brought under the system of feudal tenure, and thus the English thegn became a Norman *franklin*, or freeholder.

3. The Villeins.—By the Normans most of the English ceorls and all the serfs were treated as slaves, and were called *villeins*.² These were of two kinds: either they were attached to the soil on which they laboured, and could change owners only when it was sold; or they were the absolute property of their owners, could be sold in open market, and transferred from one estate to another. The two classes suffered equal hardships, especially during the first century after the Conquest. Villenage survived in England till the close of the fifteenth century. It received its death-blow in the Civil War of the Roses, which extinguished the power of the feudal barons. In the early part of the Tudor period, the place of the servile villeins was taken by the free labourers of England.

4. Feudal Incidents.—Besides having the benefit of *knight-service* and *socage*, the King, as lord superior, derived an actual revenue from the system, in the shape of what were called feudal incidents. These were:—(1.) The *relief* or *fine*, paid by an incoming heir before he could take possession of his estate. This stood for the Saxon *heriot*, or suit of armour, given under

¹ *Tenants-in-chief*, tenants in capite, so called because they held immediately of the King.

² *Villein*. Low Latin *villanus*, a serf attached to a villa or farm.

similar circumstances. (2.) The primer seisin, the first year's income of the lands, payable only by tenants of the Crown. (3.) Fines of alienation, paid when a tenant transferred any part of his lands to a stranger. (4.) An escheat, when a fief reverted to a superior, the tenant having died heirless. (5.) Forfeiture, payable when a vassal failed in any part of his duty either to his lord or to the state. (6.) Aids, paid to ransom the King, to portion his daughters, or to make his eldest son a knight. (7.) The profits of wardship and marriage; for the Crown managed the estates of minors, and held the right of giving in marriage the heiresses and widows of its tenants. A large sum was generally needed to buy the royal consent.

5. **Restraints on the Barons.**—In order to check the power which feudalism gave to the great barons, William required every tenant and every vassal to swear allegiance to the Crown, as well as to his immediate superior. This was, in fact, the chief difference between English feudalism and that of the Continent. William was also very strict in exacting payment of feudal incidents. Still further, to prevent the concentration of power in the hands of individuals, he broke up the great earldoms—Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex—into “counties,” and subdivided counties into “manors.” When an owner was entitled to several manors, they were distributed over different counties. Only three large districts were allowed to remain, and to these the name of “Counties Palatine” was given. These were Kent, Durham, and Cheshire—the first as a protection against the Continent, the second against Scotland, and the third against Wales. It was necessary that these outposts of the kingdom should be strong, and strongly ruled. Kent was given to Bishop Odo, and Durham to the bishop of the diocese. Cheshire alone was given to a layman. In connection with the defence of the south-eastern coast, the Cinque Ports¹—Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich—were established and fortified in 1078, and were placed under the charge of a baron, with the title of Warden. William also built castles in

¹ Cinque Ports—that is, the five ports. The office is now purely honorary. The jurisdiction of the Warden was abolished in 1855.

all the large towns ; but he kept these in his own hands, and placed the garrisons under men he could trust. These restraints dissatisfied the ambitious barons, and led them oftener than once to conspire against the King.

CHAPTER III.—THE CONQUEROR'S LATER YEARS.

1. **Discontent of the Norman Barons.**—William had henceforth nothing to fear from the English. They were deprived of land and of political power. William had at his command a great feudal army, with which he could crush a rising in any part of the country ; while the feudal castles built in the chief towns were symbols of his power. The personal submission of Edgar the Ætheling to William in 1074 was an acknowledgment of the powerlessness of the English. William's later years, however, were disturbed with troubles that came from different sources. The Norman barons were dissatisfied with their position, and especially with the restraints which the King had put on their power. They disliked the direct connection between the King and their vassals. They disliked the rigour with which the King exacted the payment of feudal incidents. They disapproved of the abolition of the great earldoms, and of the scattering of their estates over different counties.

2. **The Bridal of Norwich : 1075.**—The prevailing discontent found expression, during William's absence on the Continent in 1075, in a rebellion known as the Bridal of Norwich, because it was first broached at a marriage in that city. Ralph, Earl of Norfolk, wished to marry the daughter of Roger, Earl of Hereford. William, acting on his right as feudal superior, forbade the marriage. It nevertheless took place at Norwich, and the two Earls engaged most of those who were present in a plot against the King, in which they were promised the help of the King of Denmark. One of the conspirators was Waltheof, Earl of Northampton, an Englishman, to whom William had given his niece Judith in marriage ; but he revealed the plot to Lan-

franc, who was acting as Regent, and the rebels were defeated at Swaffham (Norfolk). The conspirators were severely punished. Their lands were confiscated; some of them were blinded, others lost a foot, others were banished. Waltheof fled over seas; but William enticed him to return, and then threw him into prison, some said at the instigation of the Earl's wife. He was beheaded at Winchester in the following May (1076), and was buried at Croyland. The English people regarded him as a martyr, and believed that miracles were performed at his tomb. The Danish fleet came too late, and retired after plundering York Minster.

3. **The Church.**—Under Lanfranc's administration the Church underwent great changes, and gave signs of new life. The Norman bishops and abbots who superseded Englishmen were made dependent directly on the King, and not on the Great Council. Lanfranc, who was a man of power, and who ruled according to a definite policy, favoured the monks and discouraged the secular clergy (1077). Strict discipline was enforced everywhere. The celibacy of the priesthood, which had been broken through, was again established. The monasteries became once more the seats of learning, and many new churches were built. Churchmen were made independent of the civil courts, and were tried for offences in the ecclesiastical courts only—a change which led to great trouble in the reign of Henry II. The War of Investitures which then distracted the Continent, and ranged Pope and Emperor on opposite sides, did not as yet affect England. William retained his right to invest bishops with the ring—symbol of

Abroad.—In 1077 Henry IV., Emperor of Germany, submitted to the Pope, Gregory VII. (Hildebrand). This was the beginning of the "War of Investitures," and of that feud between Pope and Emperor which, in the next century, became a fierce struggle between the Guelphs (adherents of the Pope) and the Ghibelines (adherents of the Emperor), and distracted Italy for three centuries. Pope Gregory had decreed that all bishops appointed by laymen should resign. Henry resisted this decree. The Pope excommunicated him, and Henry had to stand barefoot before the papal palace for three days and three nights before the Pope would receive his submission. But in 1084 Henry besieged Rome, and drove Gregory into exile, where he died, 1085.

marriage to the Church—and with the crosier or pastoral staff; and when Pope Gregory demanded homage from him, William was strong enough to refuse it. This point also led to a fierce struggle in a few years between the Church and the Crown. Meantime the effect of Lanfranc's policy was at once to strengthen and purify the Church, without weakening the Crown. William took advantage of the mutual jealousy of the barons and the clergy, and skilfully played them off against each other.

4. ~~William's Sons~~—William was unfortunate in his dealings with his sons, and during his later years they gave him much trouble. The King spent most of those years in Normandy, leaving the government of England in the hands of regents—generally Lanfranc and Odo. As a matter of policy, William caused the barons of Normandy to do homage to his son Robert as his heir, and at the same time he authorized Robert to swear fealty to the French King for Maine as his substitute. The Prince demanded immediate and full possession of both provinces; but this William refused. The young man's resentment on that account was aggravated by a trifling quarrel he had with his brothers William and Henry in a small French town. He attempted to raise a rebellion against his father; and when that failed, he wandered from court to court for many months, secretly supported by his mother Matilda. At length, in 1079, he fixed his quarters in the Castle of Gerberoi (Normandy), which William besieged, and before which the father and the son met unwittingly in single combat, when Robert unhorsed his father and wounded him in the hand. They were afterwards reconciled; and Robert led an expedition against the Scots, which, however, failed.

5. ~~The Forest Laws~~—One of William's chief acts was the institution of the Forest Laws—the origin of the Game Laws. These laws inflicted the most severe punishment on the man who killed a deer, a wild boar, or other beast of the chase. In 1079, the land between Winchester and the sea was converted into an immense hunting-park by the King, who burned cottages and churches to clear the ground for his amusement.

This wanton act was strongly resented by the English; and according to tradition a curse rested on the New Forest, as the region was called, which brought retribution on William's family. Two of his sons, Richard and William, the Red King, and a grandson, Henry, all died—probably by violence—while on hunting expeditions in that forest.

6. **Domesday Book: 1085-1086.**—In addition to the feudal incidents already mentioned, William derived revenues directly from the land. He drew the rents of nearly fourteen hundred royal manors, and of numerous forests or hunting-grounds. He also revived the old and odious Saxon land-tax called *Danegeld* or *hideage*, and he increased it from two shillings to six shillings on each hide of land. He and his ministers were never at a loss for means to raise money. But his government, though extortionate, was systematic. In order to ascertain the amount of property in the country on which taxes could be imposed, and the amount of dues exigible from each manor, a Great Council (as the Witan was now called), held at Gloucester in 1085, resolved on the national survey which resulted in the compilation of Domesday Book.¹ A royal commission, passing through the various districts, called before them the sheriffs, the lords of manors, the parish priests, the reeves of hundreds, the bailiffs, and six villeins from every hamlet, who gave evidence on oath as to the amount of land in the district, its distribution into wood, meadow, and pasture, its value, the service due by its owners, and the number of its inhabitants, both freemen and serfs. The survey was not quite complete, because the northern counties and some of the western were in a semi-desert state. But as far as it went the work was most thoroughly done. When it was finished, the King, in August 1086, called a Great Council of the barons, clergy, and landowners at Salisbury, and required every one of them to take the oath of allegiance to him, and to become his

¹ *Domesday Book.* Some have thought that the title Domesday refers to the Day of Judgment. A Celtic derivation forms it from *dom*, a lord, and *deya*, a proclamation—that is, the king's proclamation

to his tenants. Stow says that it is a corruption of *domus dei*, the name of that room in the royal treasury where the volumes were kept.

man. This was the last great act of William's reign, and it presents in a striking way that consolidation of the power of the Crown which was its leading feature.

7. William's Death.—A dispute with the King of France about the inroads of French nobles into Normandy led to a war in 1087. Probably the quarrel would have been settled peaceably, had not William been exasperated by some coarse jokes made by the French King regarding the corpulence of his brother of England. In revenge for the insult, William set fire to the town of Mantes. As he rode out to view the burning town, the plunging of his horse, which trod on some hot ashes, bruised him severely. The bruise inflamed, and after suffering for six weeks the Conqueror died near Rouen (Normandy). His corpse, deserted by all his attendants, who fled with the plunder of the palace, owed its burial to the charity of a French knight, who conveyed it to St. Stephen's, at Caen (Normandy). The ground for that church had been seized by William without payment, and now the son of the man from whom he had taken it refused to allow the body to be buried until the price had been paid by the attendant clergy.

8. Character of the Conqueror.—William was one of the ablest and strongest rulers that ever sat on the English throne. No one who was not possessed of remarkable powers, both of organization and of administration, could have done so great a work. He did what Egbert had done and what Canute had done: he made England one; but while the unity which they accomplished was transient, that which William achieved was permanent. The particular form of monarchy which he established—feudal monarchy—lasted for upwards of four centuries. William was bold in forming his plans and resolute in their execution, though he was frequently unjust and cruel. In everything he did he seems to have been guided by a definite policy. He oppressed the English, yet he used them as a

Abroad.—In 1087, the Saracens in Spain, hard pressed by the Christians, called in the aid of the Moors (from Morocco in Africa) against the King of Castile. The Moors subdued the Saracens, seized their dominions, 1091, and founded a great Moorish kingdom in Spain.

means of keeping the barons in check. He made the Church independent of the civil courts, but he made it dependent on himself by keeping the nomination of its dignitaries in his own hands. His will was strong enough to bend to it the powerful barons who fretted under his strict rule. While he inspired both fear and confidence, he awakened no affection in those around him, not even within his own family.

The changes in the Constitution have been dealt with at length in the preceding chapter on "Feudalism in England."

CHIEF EVENTS.

1066. Battle of Senlac.
1066. Election of Edgar.
1066. Coronation of William.
1067. William in Normandy.
1068. Revolt in the west suppressed.
1069. The Harrying of the North.
1071. Overthrow of Hereward the Wake.

1072. Completion of the Conquest.
1075. The Bridal of Norwich.
1077. Lanfranc's Church Reforms. — *larger.*
1079. Institution of the Forest Laws.
1085. Domesday Book begun.
1086. The Great Council of Salisbury.
1087. Death of William.

GREAT NAMES.

✓ Stigand, English Archbishop of Canterbury, suspected by William.

Ealdred, English Archbishop of York, crowned William.

✓ Edgar the Ætheling, the English heir to the crown.

Margaret, Edgar's sister, Queen of Malcolm III.

Lanfranc, Norman Archbishop of Canterbury.

Fitz-Osbern, Norman Earl of Hereford, Regent. Also, Bishop of Bayeux, William's half-brother, Regent in William's absence.

Hereward, champion of the English.

Waltheof, English Earl of Northampton, married William's niece.

✓ Edwin, English Earl of Mercia.

✓ Morcar, English Earl of Northumbria.

REIGN OF WILLIAM II.¹—(NORMAN).

1087-1100.

CHAPTER IV.—THE CROWN AGAINST THE CHURCH.

1. **Accession of Rufus: 1087.**—~~The Conqueror was succeeded~~ by his second surviving son, William, surnamed Rufus (the Red) from the colour of his complexion. Robert, in accordance with his father's will, was acknowledged Duke of Normandy. William thought his more active and more capable second son better fitted to hold with strong hand the reins of power in England. While Robert was enjoying the new dignity of his coronet at Rouen, Rufus crossed to England, and, within three weeks after the Conqueror's death, was crowned at Westminster by Lanfranc.

2. **Odo's Plot: 1088.**—William's accession was unpopular with the barons, ~~because they knew that he would keep them in check.~~ On the same ground it was regarded with favour by the English people. The discontented barons, headed by Bishop Odo, formed, early in 1088, a plot to set Robert on the throne. The English, conciliated by some temporary concessions, and remembering the cruel regency of Odo, supported Rufus. The King also threatened with the name of *Nothing*, or worthless, every one who did not follow him. With the help of the English, he stormed the Castle of Rochester (Kent), and drove the rebellious prelate into exile in Normandy.

¹ William II. (Rufus), third son of William I. Born about 1060. Never married. Reigned 13 years.

3. **Rufus's Character.**—Though the English had been induced to help William by promises of favour, these promises were forgotten as soon as the victory had been won. Rufus was thoroughly reckless, cruel, and unprincipled. His extortion was boundless. He oppressed English and Normans with impartiality. He traversed the land with mercenary soldiers, robbing and slaying those who offended him, and destroying their property. He led a vicious life, and was openly blasphemous, and he took a special delight in insulting churchmen and in desecrating churches.

4. **Attempt on Normandy.**—The duchy of Normandy, feebly ruled by the indolent though brave Robert, had great attractions for Rufus. By the use of the treasures hoarded by his father, he soon made himself master of all the fortresses on the right bank of the Seine, and prepared to follow up his fraud by force. He invaded Normandy in 1090, and gained most of the strongholds, though he failed in an attack on Rouen. In the following year the war was renewed; but the Norman barons and the French King reconciled the brothers, who agreed that the survivor should hold the united dominions.

5. **War with the Scots.**—A war with Malcolm of Scotland began in 1091. Edgar the Ætheling returned to Scotland in that year, having been deprived of his estates in Normandy by order of Rufus. William and Robert marched into Scotland, and exacted homage from Malcolm for Cumberland. In the following year William seized Cumberland, and sent peasants from the afforested lands in the south of England to settle at Carlisle and to till the land, without regard to Malcolm, who was superior of the province. Negotiations were attempted, but failed. Malcolm, in 1093, invaded Northumberland. Having laid waste the northern counties, the Scots encamped before

Scotland.—In 1093, Donald Bane, Malcolm's brother, succeeded him on the throne. In 1094, Duncan, an illegitimate son of Malcolm, seized the throne. In 1095, Duncan was murdered, and Donald was restored; but, in 1097, he was dethroned by an English army, and Edgar, Malcolm's son, was crowned.

Alnwick Castle.¹ There the English fell upon them unawares, and Malcolm and his eldest son were both slain.

6. **Ralph Flambard.**—The chief event of Rufus's reign was a struggle between the Crown and the Church, which lasted, under different forms, till the reign of John. The quarrel had its source in the power which the feudal system gave the King over Church lands as temporalities, and over bishops as his vassals. But its immediate occasion was the unbounded extravagance of Rufus. The leading instrument of his extortion was Ranulf or Ralph Flambard, a Norman priest, whom he made Justiciar, or chief minister. Besides other means of raising money, this minister devised the plan of keeping abbeys and bishoprics vacant, that the King might receive their revenues; and of demanding from those who obtained appointments large sums as the price of the benefices. Hence arose the question whether the Church or the King had the right to appoint bishops, and other delicate points, which agitated England for many years.

7. **Archbishop Anselm: 1093.**—The chief sufferer by William's system of extortion was Anselm, Abbot of Bec, who was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury in 1093. Lanfranc had died in 1089. During the interval the King had kept the see vacant, his excuse being that there were then two rival Popes, and that it would be unsafe to recognize either of them; but he had taken care to appropriate the revenues of the see. In a fit of remorse, brought on by sickness, he forced the office on Anselm, though he was very unwilling to accept it. When the King recovered, he demanded, through Flambard, the customary present of money at the Archbishop's installation. Anselm offered five hundred marks. The King demanded twice that sum; but Anselm withdrew his proffered gift, and distributed the sum among the poor. He also insisted on the restitution of the lands of the see of Canterbury, which the King had seized. Anselm followed the policy of Lanfranc in striving to purify the Church, and he attacked vehemently

¹ *Alnwick Castle*, about 34 miles north | built by the Conqueror to keep the Scots of Newcastle. This new castle had been | in check.

the frivolous and vicious lives of the courtiers. His next step was to ask leave to obtain his *pall*, or official scarf, from Pope Urban. As William was unwilling to recognize that Pope, a Great Council was held at Rockingham in 1095 to discuss the matter. The bishops sided with the King; but the barons supported Anselm, and William had to give way. He retaliated, however, by charging the Archbishop with failure in his duty as a temporal vassal of the Crown. The quarrel, thus renewed, was prolonged for some time, and at last the King's conduct became intolerable, and in 1097 Anselm went to Rome and laid his case before the Pope. Thereupon the King again seized all his estates.

8. **Earl Mowbray's Plot: 1095.**—The barons, who had from the first opposed William's accession, were by no means reconciled to his rule. The resistance they offered him at Rockingham was an indication of their feeling. Soon afterwards a new plot was formed against him by Robert Mowbray, Earl of Northumberland. The Earl retired to his strong castle of Bamborough and defied William. Being decoyed, however, from this stronghold, he was made prisoner. Matilda, his wife, still held out, but when she saw an executioner preparing to tear out her husband's eyes, she gave up the keys. For thirty years the Earl lingered in the dungeons of Windsor Castle. He was then released, and became a monk of St. Albans.

9. **Normandy Mortgaged: 1096.**—William had agreed to repay Robert for the lost castles in Normandy; but the promise was never kept, for William was as faithless as he was greedy. War between the brothers seemed unavoidable. Just then came an offer from Robert to transfer the government of Normandy and Maine to the English King for five years, on receipt of 10,000 marks.¹ The Wars of the Cross

Aproad.—In 1096 the First Crusade set out for the Holy Land to rescue Jerusalem from the Turks. It had been preached by Peter the Hermit in 1095. It reached Constantinople in 1097; Antioch was taken in 1098, and Jerusalem in 1099, when Godfrey, the leader of the Crusade, was proclaimed King of Jerusalem.

¹ Mark, value 13s. 4d.

had begun. The appeal of Pope Urban II. and the fierce war-cry of Peter the Hermit had stirred all Europe, and the knights of the First Crusade were on the march. Robert was eager to join their ranks, and hence his offer. William agreed to the terms in 1096, and the merks, wrung from the hapless English, carried Robert and his vassals to Palestine. Edgar the Ætheling, too, followed the red-cross banner to the Holy Land.

10. Death of Rufus: 1100.—Rufus died by violence. When hunting in the New Forest (Hampshire), his train gradually left him in the heat of the chase, and at sunset they found him lying dead, his heart pierced by a broken shaft. A cart bore the corpse to Winchester, where it was buried within the cathedral, but with no religious service. Whose hand sped the shaft none can tell. The common story is that Walter Tyrrel, one of his knights, aimed at a stag, but that the arrow glanced from a tree and pierced the King. Another account says that he was murdered. The character of Rufus has been described already (§ 3). No one had loved him, and no one mourned for him. No important statute was passed during the reign of Rufus, but several great public works are associated with his name—the Hall of Westminster, a bridge over the Thames at London, and a wall round the Tower.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1088. Bishop Odo's Plot.

1090. Invasion of Normandy.

1093. Defeat and death of Malcolm III. at Alnwick.

1093. William's quarrel with Anselm.

1095. Mowbray's Plot.

1096. Normandy mortgaged.

1100. Death of William II.

GREAT NAMES.

Robert, Duke of Normandy, the King's brother.

Malcolm III., King of Scotland.

Ralph Flambard, extortionate Justiciar.

Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, defended the Church against William.

Mowbray, Earl of Northumberland, plotted and rebelled against William; imprisoned for 30 years.

Walter Tyrrel, a knight, said to have killed William.

REIGN OF HENRY I.¹—(NORMAN).

1100-1135.

CHAPTER V.—SUPREMACY OF THE CROWN.

1. **Accession of Henry:** 1100.—Immediately after William's death, his brother Henry rode to Winchester, where he was chosen King by the barons on August 3rd. Having secured the royal treasures, he hastened to Westminster, and was there crowned on the following Sunday, August 5th, by Maurice, Bishop of London. Robert, whose the crown was by right, was absent on the Crusade, and still lingered in Italy on his homeward journey.

2. **Henry's Charter:** 1100.—The early acts of Henry, like those of most usurpers, were intended to conciliate opponents. He published a Charter of Liberties, which was designed to secure the support at once of the barons, the clergy, and the people. On the first he promised to make no exorbitant or unlawful demands. He set the minds of the clergy at rest by declaring the Church to be free, by filling up the vacant benefices, and by recalling the exiled Anselm. He pleased the people by promising to correct abuses, by abolishing the Curfew, and by restoring the laws of Edward the Confessor. Henry's marriage was also a politic step, and did more than anything else to please the English. In November he married Edith,² daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland, and niece of Edgar the

¹ *Henry I. (Beauclerc)*, fourth son of William I. Born 1068. Married (1) Edith-Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland, and of Margaret, sister of Edgar the Ætheling; (2) Adelais of Louvain. Issue, one son and one daughter. Reigned 35 years.

² *Edith*.—See Genealogical Tree, p. 60.

Ætheling; but to gratify the Normans she assumed the French name of Matilda or Maud. This marriage, therefore, united the Norman and the English royal line,¹ and it helped forward that blending of the races which gave strength and unity to the nation.

3. **Robert's Invasion; 1101.**—To please the English and the clergy, Flambard, the minister of Rufus, had been imprisoned in the Tower by the new King; but a friend having conveyed to him a rope hidden in a jar of wine, he escaped by a window, and reached Normandy. Robert had just arrived there with his Italian wife, and was easily induced by Flambard to invade England and claim the crown which was his by right of birth. He landed at Portsmouth in July 1101, and was joined by the leading Norman barons and their followers, while the English and the clergy supported Henry. Robert was marching on Winchester, when Henry overtook him. The Princes met in conference between the armies, with Anselm as mediator, and in a few minutes the terms of a treaty were arranged. Robert agreed to give up his claim to the English crown in return for a yearly pension of 3,000 merks, and the adherents on both sides were to be pardoned. Robert returned to Normandy in September.

4. **Conquest of Normandy; 1106.**—Early in the following year (1102), Robert of Bellême, Earl of Shrewsbury, declared for Robert, and fortified his castles; but he was defeated, and his estates were forfeited. As Duke Robert received him in Normandy as a friend, Henry declared war against his brother. He invaded Normandy in 1105, and took many castles. In the following year he gained a decisive victory at Tenchebrai (Brittany), where Robert, Edgar the Ætheling, and several of the revolted English barons were taken prisoners. Thus were Normandy and England reunited. The triumph of Henry also crushed the league of the barons, and established the suprem-

Abroad.—In 1106, Henry V. succeeded Henry IV. as Emperor of Germany.

¹ *The Norman and the English royal line.*—See Genealogical Tree, p. 80.

acy of the Crown in England. Robert was brought to England, and, after spending thirty years in prison, died at Cardiff Castle (Glamorgan) some months before his brother. Some writers say that his eyes were burned out.

5. The Investitures Compromise: 1106.—During these wars the quarrel with the Church had been reopened. The contested points were Henry's claims that the clergy should do homage for their lands, and that he, like his predecessors, should invest new abbots and prelates with the ring and crosier of their office. Anselm opposed the King's claims at a Council in London in 1103, and again left England. He returned, however, after three years, and at the Council of London in 1106 a compromise was effected. Henry gave up his claim of investiture, but retained his right to homage for the temporalities of each see or abbey. In consequence of this settlement, several bishops who had previously received their sees were consecrated by Archbishop Anselm.

6. French Wars: 1111–1119.—Henry's position in Normandy was a difficult one. The Norman nobles hated his strict rule, which lessened their power. Louis of France was jealous of the influence of his powerful vassal—for in that position Henry stood to him—and encouraged the Normans in their disloyalty. He alarmed Henry by supporting the claim of William Clito, son of Robert, as heir to the duchy, in preference to his own son William. Fulk of Anjou, a vassal of the French King, having seized Maine, Henry in 1111 passed over to Normandy with an army. In the two years' war that followed, Henry was successful in the field. He captured his great enemy Robert of Bellême,¹ and he made Fulk of Anjou his friend by promising that his son William

Scotland.—In 1107, Alexander I., another son of Malcolm, succeeded to the throne. In 1109, the Archbishop of York claimed the right to consecrate a Bishop of St. Andrews; but Alexander resisted the claim, and secured the independence of the Scottish Church.

Abroad.—In 1108, Louis VI. succeeded Philip I. of France.

¹ *Robert of Bellême.* This monster of | and died, it is said, of voluntary starvation
cruelty was thrown into prison in England, | in 1118.

should marry the Count's daughter. Louis therefore agreed to a treaty of peace in 1113. In the following year, Henry's position abroad was strengthened by the marriage of his daughter Maud to Henry V., Emperor of Germany. In 1115, and again in 1116, the barons both of England and of France acknowledged William, Henry's son, as his heir. In the latter year, however, the French war was renewed. Louis succeeded



in attaching to his interest the Counts of Flanders and Anjou, and Henry's arms suffered many reverses. At last, after spending three years consecutively in Normandy, Henry gained a decisive victory over Louis at Brenville (near Rouen) in 1119, and a treaty of peace followed which secured to Henry all that he demanded.

7. The "White Ship:" 1120.—On the voyage homeward in 1120 the Prince was drowned. When he was about to embark at

Barfleur in his father's ship, a sailor named Fitz-Stephen (whose father had steered the Conqueror's ship to England) offered the Prince the use of the *White Ship*, manned by fifty rowers. The other vessels left the shore early in the day, but the *White Ship* delayed till the evening. When the crew were rowing vigorously in the moonlight to overtake the King's ship, the vessel struck on a rock in the Race of Alderney, and all on board were lost, except a butcher of Rouen, who was floated ashore on a piece of the wreck. It is said that after hearing of this disaster Henry never smiled again. This event revived the hopes of Robert's son, William Clito, who had married a sister of Louis of France, and was made Count of Flanders. In 1128, Henry made war on him, and he was wounded in battle and died. Henry was thus left without a rival for the duchy.

8. **The Angevin Marriage: 1128.**—Left without a son to inherit his throne, Henry, in 1126, exacted from the prelates and nobles an oath to support the claim of his daughter Maud, the widow of Henry V., Emperor of Germany. Two years later, to strengthen his connections in France, he caused her to marry Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, a boy of sixteen,—an alliance which pleased neither English nor Normans. The marriage was not a happy one, and the broils between Maud and her husband disturbed the later years of Henry's reign. Once she was driven out of Anjou by her husband; and when she visited England soon afterwards, Henry required the barons to renew their allegiance to her at Northampton.

9. **Revolts of the Welsh.**—The Welsh gave Henry much trouble during the later years of his reign. He kept them quiet for a time by planting colonies of Flemings in their midst, and by placing Norman garrisons in strong castles in Wales. The Flemings were useful in another way, for they taught the people to manufacture wool. Welsh flannel is still famous. Petty revolts, nevertheless, were of frequent occurrence, and

Scotland.—In 1124, David I., youngest son of Malcolm, succeeded to the throne.

Abroad.—In 1125, Lothaire II. succeeded Henry V. as Emperor of Germany.

twice (in 1114 and 1122) Henry was forced to march in person into Wales and suppress the disturbances. A more serious outbreak occurred in 1134, while Henry was in Normandy. He was preparing to return to suppress it in the following year, when he died at Rouen after a short illness, brought on, it was said, by his having eaten to excess of lampreys.

10. **Character of Henry.**—Henry resembled his father in the strength of his character and the vigour of his government. He led a busy life, for besides ruling England with a firm hand, he had almost constant troubles in Normandy, Maine, and Anjou, and frequent disturbances in Wales, which made great demands on his time and energy. His ability as a diplomatist was shown in his dealings with foreign princes, and in the marriages he arranged for his children. He followed his father's wise policy of relying on the English people and of conciliating the Church. At the same time, he resembled his brother Rufus in his avarice and in his cruelty—the latter shown in his treatment of his brother Robert, his nephew William, and his great enemy Robert of Bellême. He was known both as "Henry the Peacelover" and as "Henry the Scholar" (Beauclerc). The former name he owed to his desire to secure peace within his kingdom "for man and for beast;" the latter to his possessing the powers of reading and writing in a higher degree than the princes of his time. He is said to have translated *Æsop's Fables*, and he was the first English King who made a formal speech from the throne.

11. **The Constitution.**—The great feature of Henry's reign, from the constitutional point of view, was the establishment of the supremacy of the Crown over the Norman barons in England. That was the chief practical result of the suppression of the revolt of Robert of Bellême, and of the defeat of Robert of Normandy at Tenchebrai. The position of the English people was also improved by the check put on the power of the barons, and by the favour in which they were held by the King. With the assistance of Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, whom he made his chief minister, he set up, in place of the Great Council of the barons, a smaller council called the *King's*

Court (Curia Regis), the members of which were selected by the King. It was a court of appeal from the local courts of the barons, and it had jurisdiction in all cases in which the tenants-in-chief and the King were concerned. The functions of the King's Court were both legislative and judicial. On its legislative side it gave rise to Parliament; on its judicial side to the several courts of justice, as the Court of King's Bench, the Court of Exchequer, the Court of Common Pleas, etc. The Exchequer in Henry's time consisted of the same barons as the King's Court; and in the absence of the King, the Justiciar, as his representative, presided in both courts. Another improvement introduced by Henry was the institution of *itinerant* or *travelling justices*, afterwards more fully developed by Henry II. These measures gained for Henry the name of "The Lion of Justice."

Under the Norman and Angevin Kings, the chief ministers were the *Justiciar* and the *Chancellor*. The Justiciar was a permanent prime minister, who represented the King on all occasions. His duties were both legal and political; but gradually his political duties disappeared, and he became the Chief Justice. The Chancellor was at first merely the chief clerk or secretary of the King's court. He afterwards became a judge. Both offices were at first filled by clergymen. The next great officers of the King's household were the *Constable*, originally the keeper of the royal castles, and the *Marshal*, or master of the horse.

CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1100. Henry's Charter of Liberties issued. | 1119. Louis of France defeated at Breteville. |
| 1100. Henry's marriage with Edith of Scotland. | 1120. Death of Prince William. |
| 1106. Robert defeated and captured at Tenchebrai. | 1128. The Angevin Marriage. |
| 1106. The Investitures Compromise. | 1135. Death of Henry I. |

GREAT NAMES.

- | | |
|---|--|
| Robert, Duke of Normandy, the King's brother. | William Clito, son of Robert of Normandy. |
| Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, champion of the independence of the Church; theologian and philosopher. | Robert of Belleme, Earl of Shrewsbury, rebelled against Henry. |
| | Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, Justiciar. |

REIGN OF STEPHEN¹ (NORMAN).

1135-1154.

CHAPTER VI.—ANARCHY AND CIVIL WAR.

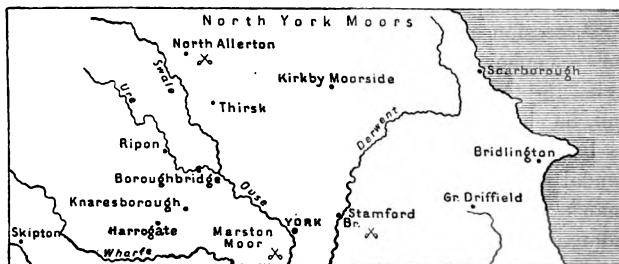
1. **Accession of Stephen: 1135.**—Stephen, Earl of Blois, was Henry's nephew, being the son of his sister Adela, who had married the Count of Blois. Though he had sworn fealty to Maud, he claimed the vacant throne in opposition to her. Besides being personally a favourite, he had on his side the feeling of feudal times, that it was disgraceful for men to submit to a woman's rule. He was joyfully received by the citizens of London, and was crowned there on December 26, 1135. The barons accepted him as King at Winchester. That was probably due to the influence of his brother Henry, who was Bishop of Winchester, and who also gained for Stephen the support of the leading clergy.

2. **Stephen's Charter: 1136.**—The body of Henry was escorted to Reading Abbey by Stephen, who helped to bear the coffin. At a Great Council held at Oxford, Stephen issued a charter in which he promised to preserve the rights of the clergy, to abolish unjust exactions, to give up the forests formed by Henry, and to observe the ancient laws and customs. These concessions secured a strong party for Stephen; but it soon became evident that he was unable to curb the violent spirit of the barons, whose castles were the strongholds of lawless

¹ *Stephen*, grandson of William I., his mother being Adela, the Conqueror's daughter. Born 1094. Married Matilda of Boulogne, niece of Queen Matilda, wife of Henry I. Issue, three sons and two daughters. Reigned 19 years.

robber-nobles, and who often made war on one another, and even on the King himself.

3. Battle of the Standard: 1138.—Maud found a champion in David of Scotland, her uncle, who was by marriage Earl of Huntingdon in England, and was suspected of desiring the English throne for himself. His first invasion, in February 1136, ended in a truce. Two years later, Robert of Gloucester, who was Maud's half-brother, renounced his fealty to Stephen, and organized a new invasion. David ravaged Northumberland and marched into Yorkshire; but he was there met at Northallerton by the northern barons and their vassals, who had been roused to action by the aged Thurstan, Archbishop



of York. There was fought (August 22, 1138) the Battle of the Standard; so called because above the English forces rose the mast of a ship, adorned with the banners of saints, and surmounted by a cross, the whole being bound to a rude car. The Scots rushed to the onset with shouts, and bore back the English van. After fighting fiercely around the standard for two hours, the Scots gave up the struggle, and fled from the field scattered and broken. David collected his forces at Carlisle, where he was joined, three days later, by his son

Abroad.—In 1137, Louis VII. succeeded Louis VI. of France. In 1138, Conrad III. succeeded Lothaire II. as Emperor.

In 1138, the great struggle between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines began in Germany, when Conrad of Franconia and Henry the Lion of Saxony strove for the imperial crown. Henry (who was supported by the Pope) was head of the house of Welf; and in a great battle in 1140 the party cries were first used, "Hie Waiblingen!" "Hie Welf!"

Henry, who had escaped into the woods by following the pursuit as an English knight. Early in the next year peace was made, and on terms so favourable to Scotland as to suggest that Stephen was anxious to conciliate the Scottish King. All Northumberland, except Bamborough and Newcastle, was conferred on Prince Henry of Scotland.

4. **Lawlessness and Violence.**—The evil effects of Stephen's feeble rule soon began to appear. To retain the support of the nobles, he was forced to grant them lands and honours; and he could not prevent them from erecting many new castles,¹ in the building of which the common people were cruelly oppressed. The law was set at defiance. The strong robbed the weak, and innocent persons were cast into dungeons and were cruelly tortured. The clergy were powerless to stay the general violence and lawlessness. Even monasteries were robbed, and churches were ransacked and burned. According to the Chronicle: "Never yet was there more wretchedness in the land, nor ever did heathen men worse than they did." Trade and tillage were neglected; and a man might have ridden for a whole day in some districts without seeing a cultivated field or an inhabited dwelling.

5. **Maud's Invasion: 1139.**—Among those who had built for themselves strong castles were several bishops. Stephen saw too late the mistake he had made in allowing these feudal strongholds to multiply, and he resolved to reduce them. He began with those of the bishops. He forced Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, and the Bishops of Ely and Lincoln, to surrender their strongholds; and he deprived the Bishop of Ely of his see. This turned the clergy against him. At a Great Council held at Winchester, his brother Henry, who was papal legate, took the lead in condemning him (August 1139). The supporters of Maud saw in this quarrel a favourable occasion for their interference. A month later, Maud and Robert of Gloucester landed at Portsmouth with one hundred and forty knights. At first she occupied Arundel Castle in Sussex;

¹ *New castles.* Sometimes called adulterine castles, from their nefarious origin.

but, with a generosity more chivalrous than politic, Stephen permitted her to reach Bristol, the chief stronghold of Earl Robert. In the civil war that followed, London and the east sided with Stephen; Bristol and the west with Maud. The barons, who lived like independent kings within their castles, watched its progress without joining much in its operations. Any of them who took part in it did so for their own advantage. Stephen relied mainly on the aid of foreign mercenaries—Flemings and Bretons—who flocked to England in the hope, not so much of pay, as of enriching themselves by plunder. The English people naturally took the side of Maud, as they blamed Stephen for the state of anarchy which prevailed in the country, and for the oppression from which they suffered. The Welsh, who had been in a state of revolt before the accession of Stephen, also gave their assistance to Maud.

6. **The Civil War: 1139–1142.**—Maud's cause was at first successful. Early in 1141, Stephen besieged Lincoln, which he had intrusted to the Earl of Chester, one of his followers who had proved a traitor. The Earl escaped, and with his aid Gloucester attacked Stephen at Lincoln, and captured him. He was cast into the dungeon of Bristol Castle; while his wife, Matilda of Boulogne, withdrew to Kent. Maud was then received at Winchester by Bishop Henry, and was acknowledged as "Lady of England" by the clergy; but her arrogance soon estranged her warmest supporters. The men of Kent, rising in Stephen's cause, entered London; and Maud, alarmed at the pealing of bells and the shouts of the citizens, fled on horseback to Oxford. Deserted by Henry of Blois, who made terms with Stephen's Queen, Maud rashly attacked him in Winchester. That ruined her cause; for during the siege her brother Robert was taken prisoner, and Stephen, exchanged for him, was replaced on the throne. Maud returned to Oxford, and was there besieged by the King. She sustained the siege far into the winter of 1142, in the hope that Stephen would yield to the severity of the weather; but famine forced her to leave the castle. She with three knights, all clad in white in order to escape the eye of Stephen's senti-

nels, fled over the snow, crossed the Thames on the ice, and reached Wallingford. This was practically the end of the war. Maud remained for three years longer in England, holding Gloucester as the centre of her sway, which was acknowledged in the western half of the kingdom. Then, having lost by death her chief supporters, Milo Earl of Hereford and Robert of Gloucester, she retired to Normandy (1145). She died in 1167.

7. Henry of Anjou.—Her son Henry had been meanwhile growing up. He visited Scotland in 1149, and was knighted by King David, his granduncle. He acquired very extensive and rich possessions abroad. By right of his mother he held Normandy. On his father's death in 1151, he succeeded to Anjou, Maine, and Touraine; and in the same year he gained Poitou, Auvergne, Guienne, and other states by his marriage with Eleanor of Poitou, the divorced wife of the French King. Thus powerful in France, he invaded England in 1152, to wrest from Stephen the crown of his grandfather. He acted with vigour and courage, and gained many castles; but the death of Stephen's eldest son, Eustace, suggested a



THE FRENCH POSSESSIONS OF HENRY II., SHADED.

Abroad.—In 1147 the Second Crusade, led by Louis VII. of France and Conrad III. of Germany, failed; and the crusaders returned to Europe.

In 1152, Frederick I. (Barbarossa) succeeded Conrad III. as Emperor.

Scotland.—In 1153, David I. was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm IV.

peaceful settlement, and a treaty was made at Wallingford (November 1153), by which Henry was acknowledged as heir to the English throne, while William, surviving son of Stephen, was to inherit the earldom of Boulogne and the private domains of his father. Further difficulties were prevented by the death of Stephen in less than a year afterwards at Dover (October 1154). Henry was thereupon summoned to England, and peacefully ascended the throne, to the great joy of the English people.

8. Character of Stephen.—Stephen was an easy-going, good-natured, irresolute man. He rewarded his friends; but he also forgave his enemies, and showed them on some occasions a leniency that injured his own cause. The failure of his reign was due in great measure to the difficulties of his position. He was able neither to maintain his own independence nor to afford protection to his subjects. He was a skilful soldier, and the Chronicle says that he was “a good man,” though he “did not execute justice.”

9. The Constitution.—The reign of Stephen revived feudalism in its worst form. The liberty of the greater vassals became license, and the restraining power which previous kings had exercised was altogether absent. Anarchy was triumphant.

CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1136. Stephen's Charter granted. | 1139. Maud's Invasion: Civil War. |
| 1138. David of Scotland defeated in the Battle of the Standard. | 1145. Maud's retirement to Normandy. |
| 1138. Many baronial castles were built. | 1153. Treaty of Wallingford. |
| | 1154. Death of Stephen. |

GREAT NAMES.

- | | |
|--|--|
| David I., King of Scotland and Earl of Huntingdon, uncle of Maud. | Thurstan, Archbishop of York, supporter of Stephen. |
| Maud, Countess of Anjou, daughter of Henry I. | Henry, Bishop of Winchester, brother of Stephen. |
| Henry of Anjou, son of Maud, afterwards King. | Milo, Constable of Gloucester and Earl of Hereford, supporter of Maud. |
| Robert, Earl of Gloucester, Maud's half-brother and chief supporter. | |

CHAPTER VII.—NORMAN CUSTOMS AND LIFE.

1. **Chivalry.**—Closely interwoven with the Feudal System was Chivalry or Knighthood. Every knight passed through a regular course of training, serving first as a page, and then as an esquire, before he received his spurs and took the vows of knighthood. The night before this ceremony, the candidate held his *vigil*; when, within some church or chapel, he kept a silent watch over the arms he was about to assume. The Knight, when fully equipped, was clad from head to heel in armour formed of plates of steel, below which he wore a dress of leather. On his helmet was a crest; on his three-pointed shield a device,—his coat-of-arms. His chief weapon was the lance; but, besides, he wore a two-handed sword, and a poniard called “the dagger of mercy,” used to kill a fallen foe; and he not unfrequently carried a battle-axe or mace.

2. **The Tournament.**—The chief sport of chivalry was the Tournament or Joust. It was held within an enclosed space called the lists. Ladies and nobles sat around in raised galleries to witness the sport, while the lower orders thronged outside the barriers. With flourish of trumpets the heralds proclaimed the titles of the knights, as they rode into the lists. At sound of trumpet the combatants dashed at full gallop from opposite ends of the field, and met in the midst with a terrible shock. Sometimes the lances flew into splinters, and the horses were thrown back on their haunches; sometimes one of the knights was hurled from the saddle to the ground, stunned, bleeding, and bruised by his heavy armour. The victor in the tilting, besides winning the horses and armour of those whom he vanquished, had the privilege of naming some lady as Queen of Love and Beauty, who presided over the remaining sports.

3. **Norman Castles.**—The Castles of the Normans were built for strength and safety in turbulent times; and their gray ruins, still rising in solid grandeur here and there over the land, teach

us how it was that the feudal barons were often able to bid defiance to the King. The distinctive feature of their architecture is the rounded arch, as opposed to the pointed arch and lancet-shaped window of the Gothic style. The principal building was the keep, a square tower of five stories, with very thick walls. The lowest story contained dungeons, the second held the stores, the third accommodated the garrison, while the upper two were occupied by the baron and his family. The entrance to the keep was guarded by a gate, a drawbridge, and a portcullis, while around the whole castle ran a moat, or deep ditch filled with water. Close to the castle the workshops and houses of those employed by the baron and his vassals clustered together. Smiths, carpenters, workers in leather, bakers, butchers, tailors, and numerous other craftsmen lived there, having built their huts side by side for safety; and thus the Feudal Castle was often the nucleus of a Feudal Town.

4. **Manner of Life.**—In their manner of life the Normans were more temperate and refined than the English. They had only two regular meals: dinner, taken by the higher classes at nine in the morning; and supper, about four or five in the afternoon. The Normans introduced the general use of the chief flesh meats found on our tables;—a change which is curiously illustrated in our language, where we find the words denoting the living animal, *ox, sheep, calf, pig*, to be English; while the words applied to the flesh used as food, *beef, mutton, veal, pork*, are Norman or French in their origin. The sleeping-rooms of the great contained rude wooden beds with coarse coverlets; but the mass of the people were obliged to content themselves with straw and sheep-skins.

5. **Dress.**—In dress, as in food, the Normans introduced many novelties. The man of fashion, closely shaven, and with long hair curling on the shoulders, wore a loose doublet reaching half-way down the leg, girt with a gold-embroidered belt. Over this was a short cloak, richly furred and laced with gold. The shoes had very long toes, pointed and twisted like the horns of a ram, and sometimes fastened with chains of gold or silver to the knees. Long hose fastened to the doublet by

many strings, called *points*, and a bonnet of velvet, completed the costume. The Norman lady wore a kirtle or under-gown of silk, over which hung a loose, wide-sleeved robe reaching the ground. The clergy, whose professional mark of distinction was a heavy gold signet-ring, often vied with the gallants of the day in the splendour and fashion of their dress.

6. **The Curfew Bell.**—The Normans introduced the Curfew Bell (from *couvre feu*, “cover-fire”), which was rung at eight o’clock in the evening, as a signal for putting out all fires and candles. Though long looked on as a tyrannical measure, it may have been wisely intended to preserve the wooden houses from being burned.

7. **Language and Literature.**—The Norman tongue—rich in words relating to war, chivalry, law, and the sports of the field—being the language of the court, speedily became that of the church, the halls of justice, and the schools, where boys construed their Latin lessons in French.¹ The English language, like the race that spoke it, made little progress during those days of bondage. Ever since the Conquest, a struggle for mastery had been going on between the English and the Norman language. About the time of Magna Carta a reaction began in favour of the former, which ended in its triumph. Romances²—at this time the popular form of literature in Europe—were introduced into England by the Normans. They described the adventures of great warriors;—Alexander, Arthur, and Charlemagne were the favourites. The leading contemporary authorities for the Norman period are William of Malmesbury (1067–1143), Geoffrey of Monmouth (died 1154), and the English Chronicle, continued till 1154.

¹ *In French.* A full account of the effects of the Norman Conquest on the English language may be seen in “Higher Grade English,” pp. 36–40.

² *Romances.* So called because originally

written in one of the *Romance* languages, as the languages derived from the ancient Roman tongue (that is, Latin) were called,—namely, Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese.

REIGN OF HENRY II.¹ (ANJOU).

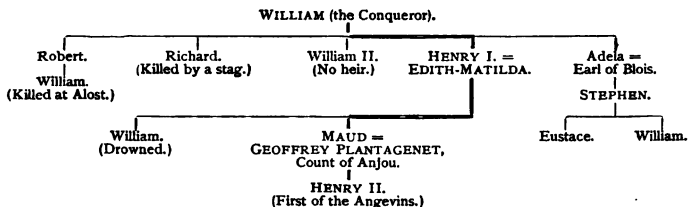
1154-1189.

CHAPTER VIII.—THE QUARREL WITH BECKET.

1. **The Angevin Dynasty.**—A new dynasty begins with Henry II. He was the first of the Angevin Kings, being son of Geoffrey Plantagenet,² Count of Anjou. Sometimes all the Kings from Henry II. to Richard III. are reckoned in one dynasty—that of the Plantagenets; but there were really three dynasties—namely, those of Anjou, York, and Lancaster. Young Henry had a brilliant prospect before him. In France, as we have seen, he held extensive possessions,³ all the western coast owning his sway. Along with his Queen, Eleanor, he

GENEALOGICAL TREE

CONNECTING THE NORMAN KINGS AND THE ANGEVINS.



¹ Henry II., son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, and of Maud, daughter of Henry I. Born 1133. Married Eleanor of Poitou and Aquitaine. Issue, five sons and three daughters. Reigned 35 years.

² Plantagenet. — This name is derived

from *Planta genista*, the Latin term for the shrub we call broom; which, as an emblem of humility, was worn by the first Earl of Anjou when a pilgrim to the Holy Land.

³ See p. 80, and Map, p. 81.

was crowned at Westminster by Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury. During several years he was engaged in redressing the evils which had sprung from the turbulence of Stephen's reign. He reduced the number of the great earldoms, drove from England the foreign hirelings who had swarmed into the land during the civil war, and set himself to destroy the castles of the barons. He avoided the mistakes of Stephen, and followed steadily the policy by which his grandfather, Henry I., had striven to consolidate the nation.

2. Order restored : 1154–1157.—Before the end of 1157 Henry had succeeded in restoring order and in establishing his authority over the whole kingdom. He had recovered Northumberland, Durham, and Cumberland from Malcolm IV. of Scotland, and had received homage from him as Earl of Huntingdon. He failed to conquer Wales; but a few years later a Welsh Prince, as well as the King of Scotland, is found fighting under Henry's banner in France. Having made himself completely master of England, he was crowned a second time at Lincoln, on Christmas day, 1157.

3. Rise of Becket.—Henry's chief adviser in his efforts to restore order and establish a firm government was Thomas Becket,¹ who was made Chancellor on the King's accession in 1154. His father was Gilbert Becket, a port-reeve, or magistrate, of London. To his mother, a pious woman, he was indebted for his early training in religious principles and in good works. He had been ordained a deacon, and had early attracted the notice of Archbishop Theobald, whose patronage he secured by obtaining for him the office of Papal Legate in England (1143). At the same time, while in Italy, he had gained the favour of Henry by obtaining from the Pope a bull forbidding the coronation of Eustace, Stephen's son. Theobald promoted him to the office of Archdeacon of Canterbury, and it was by the Archbishop's advice that the King made him Chancellor. He was

¹ *Thomas Becket.* Born 1118; educated at Merton Priory and at London; served as clerk in the office of a kinsman; entered household of Theobald; studied canon law at Bologna; rector of Oxford and prebendary of St. Paul's, 1154; Archbishop of Canterbury, 1162; murdered, 1170. (See Lord Tennyson's drama, "Becket.")

also made Warden of the Tower of London, and soon became the most prominent figure at court. He rivalled the greatest barons in the splendour of his retinue and the magnificence of his hospitality. His position as a churchman did not prevent him from joining the army as a temporal lord. In 1189, when Henry made war on his suzerain, the King of France, in support of his wife's claim to Toulouse, Becket led into the field a body of 700 troops splendidly equipped.

4. **Becket Archbishop: 1162.**—On the death of Theobald (1162), the King insisted on making Becket Archbishop of Canterbury, in the belief that he would have a Primate who would help him to reform the Church and curb the power of the clergy. At once Becket changed his conduct. To the King's dismay, he resigned his Chancellorship, became as frugal in his style of living as he had formerly been luxurious, and exchanged his gay train of knights for the society of a few monks.

5. **The Quarrel with the King.**—From this time he began to lose the favour of the King. Dislike deepened into hatred; hatred burst into open quarrel. The rights of the clergy formed the immediate subject of contention. Becket, though of Norman parentage, was the first man born on English soil who obtained the primacy under the Normans. He therefore enlisted the sympathy of all his countrymen, English as well as Norman, in his struggle against the royal power. Henry required that priests accused of crime should be tried by the judges of the civil courts. That had been the law and custom before the reign of Stephen, but in the general anarchy of that time the clergy had succeeded in making themselves independent. Henry resolved to bring them again under civil jurisdiction. Becket opposed him, maintaining the right of priests to answer for their conduct only to the courts of the Church. As the Church courts had no power to inflict capital punishment, priests who were guilty of the most heinous crimes escaped with a mild penalty. A case in point occurred at Dunstable, where a priest who had committed a murder was tried by the King's justice. He would undoubtedly have been sentenced to death;

but Becket transferred the case to the ecclesiastical courts, and the culprit was merely suspended from his living for two years.

6. **The Constitutions of Clarendon: 1164.**—This and similar cases were brought before the King at a Council held at Westminster in October 1163. The King required the bishops to observe the "customs" of the realm, as they had been followed in the time of Henry I. The bishops, with Becket at their head, consented, "saving the right of their order." Henry resolved to have their verbal promise put into a more binding form. At a Great Council held at Clarendon in the following January, he produced the "customs," drawn up in the form of sixteen resolutions, called the "Constitutions of Clarendon;" and he required the bishops to accept them. The chief of them were that accused clerks should be tried in the civil courts and punished as laymen; that no clerk should leave the realm without the King's consent; that no tenant-in-chief should be excommunicated without the King's consent; that archbishops, bishops, and abbots should be elected by order of the King in the King's Court, and should do homage for their lands before receiving consecration; that the King's Court should decide what matters were ecclesiastical and what civil; and that there should be no appeal to Rome without the King's consent. Becket refused to agree to these "customs," and withdrew his former assent. The matter was debated vehemently for six days, and then the Archbishop left the Council. Another Council was held at Northampton in October, at which grave charges were brought against Becket in connection with his administration of the royal treasury while Chancellor, and he was fined in a large sum. He left Northampton in disguise the same night, and having reached the coast in safety, he sailed to France, where King Louis received him as a friend. Henry banished the family and friends of the Archbishop to the number of four hundred, and confiscated his lands and property. Becket, while in France, excommunicated

Scotland.—In 1165, William I. (the Lion) succeeded Malcolm IV.

those of the bishops and clergy who had agreed to the Constitutions of Clarendon.¹

7. Return of Becket: 1170.—After Becket had been an exile for six years, Henry became anxious for a reconciliation with him. Efforts in that direction had been made by the Pope and the King of France, but had failed. Now the necessities of Henry's position forced him to come to terms with his rival. He was desirous of lessening still further the power of the great landowners, and he knew that the only sure means of doing so was to gain the support of the Church, of which Becket was still the head. He was also anxious that his eldest son Henry should succeed him on the throne, and with that view he resolved to have him crowned before his own death. Roger, Archbishop of York, performed the ceremony (June 14, 1170), with the assistance of several bishops. Becket, with the Pope's approval, declared this to be an infringement of the rights of the see of Canterbury, and excommunicated all the bishops who had taken part in the proceedings. Fearful that the coronation might turn out to be invalid, Henry sought for a reconciliation. The King and the Primate met near Tours in July, and came to an agreement; and Becket returned to England in December, to the great joy of the people.

8. Murder of Becket: 1170.—When Becket resumed possession of his see, he found that his property had been grievously squandered by two brothers, Ranulf and Robert de Broc, who had been put in charge of it by the King, and he excommunicated them. He also published his sentence passed on the bishops. When these things were reported to the King, who was in Normandy, he happened to say, "Is there none of the cowards eating my bread who will free me from this turbulent priest?" Four knights² who heard these words took an oath to slay Becket. Having secretly travelled to England, they

¹ *Constitutions of Clarendon.* The Constitutions were afterwards disregarded. When Richard, Prior of Dover, was elected Archbishop in 1173, he swore fealty to the King, "saving his order," and without reference to the "customs" of the realm; and the Justiciar accepted the oath.

² *Four knights.* Their names may be given here—Reginald Fitz-Urse, William de Tracey, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito. De Moreville went on a crusade to expiate his crime. He was living at the beginning of John's reign. All the murderers escaped punishment.

repaired by different routes to Saltwood, the castle occupied by the De Brocs. On December 29th they burst into the cathedral at Canterbury, and murdered the prelate on the steps of the altar in the most brutal manner. The scene of the murder, and the saintly reputation of the victim, deepened the horror with which the people looked upon this crime, and the tomb of Becket became a resort of pilgrims.¹

CHAPTER IX.—IRELAND : DOMESTIC TROUBLES.

1. **Invasion of Ireland: 1169.**—One of the chief events of Henry's reign was the invasion of Ireland. That island was then divided into six provinces—Leinster, Desmond or South Munster, Thomond or North Munster, Connaught, Ulster, and Meath; the last being specially attached to the dignity of *Ard-riagh*, or supreme monarch, which was then claimed by the O'Connors, Kings of Connaught. Between the Kings of these petty states there were constant feuds, and there were often tribal or faction wars within each state. The ports were in the hands of Ostmen, or Eastmen, descended from the Danish pirates, and were very prosperous, the commerce of Dublin rivalling that of London. But the mass of the people lived by feeding cattle. In 1166, a feud arose between Dermot Macmorrogh, King of Leinster, and O'Rourke, Prince of Breffni or Leitrim. Dermot had carried off O'Rourke's wife; but she had



¹ See the Prologue of Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales."

been recovered by the aid of O'Connor, the Ard-riagh. War ensued, and Dermot was driven from the island. When he appealed to Henry for aid, the King refused, but he gave him dubious leave to apply to his nobles. Three years later, Dermot induced Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke (surnamed Strongbow¹), Robert Fitzstephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald, to accept his terms. Fitzstephen landed at Bannow Bay (Co. Wexford) with 40 knights and 300 archers, and Wexford fell before him. Fitzgerald followed. Then came Strongbow with 1,200 men in 1170. Waterford and Dublin were carried by storm; and no efforts of the Irish could dislodge the invaders from the fortresses with which they rapidly secured their conquests. Strongbow married Dermot's daughter, and became Lord of Leinster; but Henry obliged him to submit to his authority, and to surrender to him Waterford, Dublin, and other castles.

2. **Henry in Ireland: 1172.**—Henry had sent ambassadors from Normandy to the Pope, to assure him that he had not instigated or approved of the murder of Becket. The Pope satisfied himself with a general sentence of excommunication, and appointed two legates to Normandy to inquire into Henry's guilt. Henry thought it advisable not to meet them, and started for England, where he equipped an army. He crossed over to Ireland in October 1171, landing at Waterford, and at Dublin he received the homage of the chieftains. The Princes of Ulster alone withheld their submission. The Irish clergy held a synod at Cashel, at which they acknowledged Henry as King, and also adopted changes which brought their Church into closer conformity with that of England. These events are called the Conquest of Ireland, but the final subjugation of the island was of much later date.

3. **Henry and his Sons: 1173.**—In order to prevent jealousies and quarrels at his death, Henry assigned to his sons their respective portions of his wide dominions. In 1173, his three

¹ *Strongbow*, son of Gilbert de Clare, who conquered a great part of West Wales, and was made Earl of Pembroke in 1138. Richard became Earl in 1149. He died at Dublin in 1176, and his estates

descended to his daughter Isabel, who married William Marshall, who became Earl of Pembroke in 1189, and Earl Marshal in 1199, and Regent in 1216. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 128.)



eldest sons—Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey—demanded immediate possession of their governments, and fled to the court of France. Their mother, Queen Eleanor, who sympathized with them, tried to join them, but was captured and thrown into prison, where she remained till Henry's death. The rebel Princes obtained the support of Louis VII. of France and of William the Lion of Scotland, as well as of many of the nobles in Normandy and in England. The Earls of Chester and Leicester broke into open rebellion. The King of Scotland crossed the Border, ravaged the northern counties, and laid siege to Carlisle.

4. **Henry's Penance: 1174.**—It was in these circumstances that Henry resolved to do penance at the tomb of Archbishop Becket. Following the policy of his grandfather and his great-grandfather, he sought to strengthen himself against the nobles by securing the support of the Church and of the people. Though a Council held at Avranches two years previously had formally acquitted him of guilty knowledge of Becket's death, his misfortunes were still ascribed in the popular mind to his connection with that murder. In order to propitiate at once the public sentiment and the Church, he walked barefoot through the city of Canterbury, threw himself on the pavement before the shrine of the Archbishop, and was there scourged with knotted cords. Immediately afterwards he received news of the capture of William of Scotland, who, on the day following Henry's penance, was surprised in a mist near Alnwick Castle (Northumberland), and taken prisoner by Glanvil, the greatest of Henry's generals. This the King exultingly ascribed to the mercy of reconciled Heaven, deeming it, according to the notions of the age, the direct fruit of his submission. Henry returned to Normandy in August, and was reconciled to his sons, of whom Richard and Geoffrey did homage to him for their respective duchies. William of Scotland was not re-

Scotland.—In 1176, the Archbishop of York again claimed jurisdiction in Scotland. The Scottish bishops appealed to the Pope (Alexander III.), and he decided in their favour. This was confirmed by a decree of Clement III. in 1188

leased until, in the Treaty of Falaise, he had acknowledged his kingdom a fief and himself a vassal of the English crown ;—a forced submission which it is important to remember, for on it Edward I. founded his claim to the lordship of Scotland.

5. Prince John in Ireland: 1177.—Ireland was governed by Hugh Lacy as the King's deputy for some years after Henry visited it; but in 1177 the office of Lord of Ireland was conferred on Prince John, the youngest and favourite son of the King. He was then a mere boy—only ten years of age—but when he began to grow up, his insolent conduct gave great offence to the Irish chiefs, and he was recalled in 1185.

6. Death of Henry: 1189.—Henry's later years were made unhappy by the quarrels of his sons. In 1183, Henry and Geoffrey made war on their brother Richard; but the death of Henry, near Limoges, restored peace for a time. Only for a time, however; for in the following year Geoffrey and John combined against Richard. The King's intervention again reconciled the brothers. The death of Geoffrey in a tournament at Paris about two years later, left Henry with only two legitimate sons—Richard and John—and with them he hoped to die at peace. In this he was disappointed. Richard quarrelled with his father again (1188) about the lands of Alice, sister of Philip Augustus of France, to whom he was betrothed. Philip supported Richard in the war, and received his homage. In the war which followed, Henry was driven out of Touraine, and as his health was failing, he agreed to a humiliating peace. The discovery that his favourite son John had been one of the rebels had such an effect on his weakened system that he died at Chinon (Touraine), on July 6, 1189. The Church of Fontevraud (Anjou) received his remains, over which his son Richard is said to have wept bitter tears of remorse.

7. His Character.—Henry II. was a ruler of the same stamp as the Conqueror and Henry I. He formed a distinct policy as to the government of his wide possessions, and that policy he strove to carry out consistently. He was energetic, far-

Abroad.—In 1180, Philip Augustus succeeded Louis VII. in France.

seeing, and strong-willed. He restored the royal supremacy in England, and ruled that country firmly and well; but he was less successful in retaining his hold on his Continental possessions, where his vassals gave unwilling allegiance to a foreign suzerain, as Henry was, and where he himself was a vassal of his jealous rival, the King of France. Henry was a lover of peace, but he proved himself a brave soldier when occasion arose. In his private life he was false, cruel, and dissolute. His cruelty to his wife was aggravated by the fact that her attempt to escape from England was due to his own unfaithfulness.

8. **The Constitution.**—From a constitutional point of view, the reign of Henry II. is one of the most important in the early history of England. The Great Council was called together more frequently than it had been since the Conquest. It was attended not only by the greater barons, but also by the lesser, who were directly dependent on the King. It thus began to assume the character of a national assembly, though it had not yet received the name of "Parliament." The King's Court (*Curia Regis*) was strengthened, especially as regarded its judicial functions. The Assize (Statute) of Clarendon (1166) introduced great changes in the local administration of justice. Instead of the old method of trial by compurgation, *Juries of Presentment* were formed, which were to swear true accusations (*vera dicta*—verdicts) against offenders. In civil causes, as in a dispute about property, twelve knights of the shire, appointed indirectly by the sheriff, and called *Recognitors*, were authorized to inquire into and settle the dispute. In this we have probably the true origin of the modern jury.

Henry retained and extended the plan of itinerant justices introduced by his grandfather. The Assize of Northampton in 1176 established six circuits, with three itinerant judges—members of the King's Court—in each circuit. ~~The King's judges administered justice more efficiently and impartially than the local courts of the barons, from which they drew away a great deal of business. This reduced the influence of the great landowners, and excited their jealousy; but it~~

strengthened the position of the King by making his authority rest on the goodwill and confidence of the people. A change made in the county courts further diminished the power of the barons. The sheriffs who presided in them were chosen from the great landowners; but Henry in 1170 ordered an inquiry into their administration, the result of which was that many of them were removed, and officers of the Exchequer were put in their places.

Early in the reign (1159) an important infringement on the feudal system took place. Instead of military service, Henry accepted scutage (or shield money) from those vassals who were unwilling to serve under the King's banner abroad. With the proceeds of the tax Henry hired foreign mercenaries to defend his French possessions. From the national *fyrð*, or militia, he could get no assistance in his foreign wars, as they were not bound to serve abroad. The fyrð was, however, reorganized by Henry. In 1181 he issued the Assize (Statute) of Arms, which required every freeman to arm himself, so as to be ready to serve in defence of King and country. By this means Henry founded his throne on the loyalty of the English people, and made himself independent both of his barons and of foreign mercenaries. The hated Dane-geld, which had been revived and increased by William I., disappeared in Henry's reign (about 1163). He was the first King to levy a tax on personal or movable property—a tax of one-tenth levied in 1188 to equip a crusade, hence called the "Saladin tithe."

CHIEF EVENTS.

1154. Becket made Chancellor.
1162. Becket made Archbishop.
1164. The Constitutions of Clarendon.
1166. The Assize of Clarendon.
1170. Murder of Becket.

1172. Submission of Irish chiefs to Henry.
1174. Henry's penance at Becket's tomb.
1174. Capture of William of Scotland at Alnwick.
1189. Death of Henry II.

GREAT NAMES.

Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury.
Thomas Becket, Chancellor, and Archbishop of Canterbury.
Roger, Archbishop of York.

"Strongbow," Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, a leader of the English in Ireland.
William the Lion, King of Scotland.
Ranulf de Glanvil, victor at Alnwick; Justiciar.

REIGN OF RICHARD I.¹ (ANJOU).

1189-1199.

CHAPTER X.—ADVENTURES ABROAD.

1. **Accession of Richard:** 1189.—Richard crossed at once from Normandy to England, and received his father's crown at Westminster. The ceremony was marred by a massacre of Jews in London, under the pretext, or the mistake, that they had tried to force their way into the abbey against the King's command. A rumour having spread that the King had ordered all Jews to be put to death, a rush was made to the Jewry, or quarter in which they lived; their houses were robbed and burned, and many of them lost their lives. That was a bad beginning of a miserable reign.

2. **The Third Crusade:** 1190-1192.—To rule over England and half of France did not satisfy Richard's ambition. He was eager to win glory on the plains of Palestine, where men who loved fighting for its own sake found abundant occupation. A crusade, however, required money, and to that end Richard directed his earliest measures. He freely sold titles, honours, and offices; and he gave up for ten thousand marks the homage which his father had wrested from the King of Scotland in 1174. Having appointed as guardians of the realm during his absence the co-Justiciars, William of Longchamp, Bishop of

Abroad.—In 1187, the Sultan Saladin captured Acre and Jerusalem. This led to the Third Crusade, organized by Philip Augustus of France and Richard of England (1189).

¹ *Richard I.* (Cœur de Lion), fourth son of Henry II. Born 1157. Married Berengaria of Navarre. No issue. Reigned 10 years. (See Sir Walter Scott's "Ivanhoe.")

Ely, and Hugh de Pudsey or Puiset, Bishop of Durham, Richard left England early in 1190. He assembled his army at Tours, and marched thence to Vezelay, in Burgundy, where in July he joined his forces to those of the French King, their combined armies forming a host of 100,000 men. Here the two Kings renewed their protestations of friendship, and vowed that neither should attack the dominions of the other during the Crusade.

3. **Siege of Acre: 1191.**—Richard having sailed from Marseilles and Philip from Genoa, they met again at Messina in Sicily, where the winter was spent. The English suffered greatly from the attacks of the Messinese. Richard punished them with great cruelty; and as Philip seemed to take their side, a quarrel ensued between the two monarchs, which did not give promise of future harmony. On this, as on other occasions, Richard's reckless and violent temper endangered the success of the undertaking. The French force reached Acre in April 1191. Richard was delayed by storms and misadventures, first at Rhodes and afterwards at Cyprus, where he was married to Berengaria of Navarre; and he did not reach Acre till June—a year after his departure from England. The siege of Acre had been going on for some months, but Richard put so much fresh vigour into the assault, that a few days after his arrival the gates of the town were thrown open. During the attack, Richard's impetuosity was shown again in a quarrel with Leopold, Archduke of Austria, who had hoisted his banner on a tower which he had captured. Richard tore down the banner, and threatened in insulting words to chastise its owner.

4. **Departure of Philip: 1191.**—Soon after this success, Philip Augustus returned to France, alleging his weak health as the reason. He had, however, other grounds for abandoning his alliance with Richard, with whom he had had a new quarrel about the succession to the crown of Jerusalem. He was disgusted with the imperious conduct of that monarch, and with the supremacy he assumed. He was probably jealous also of a vas-

Abroad.—In 1191, Henry VI. succeeded Frederick Barbarossa as Emperor.

VI., claimed his custody, or purchased him for a large sum of money, and flung him into the Castle of Dürrenstein, on the Danube. There is a legend that a French minstrel, named Blondel, discovered the place of Richard's captivity. Wandering through the land, he happened, near a grated window, to strike his harp to an air of Richard's own composing. The strain was answered from within, and he knew it was the King of England who sang. That, however, is only a romance. The secret of Richard's prison was really disclosed by a letter from the Emperor to Philip of France. It is said that Longchamp, then a refugee in Normandy, got hold of the secret, and used it to disconcert the plots of his enemy, Earl John. He induced Eleanor, the Queen-mother, to appeal to the Pope for help in releasing her son; but all that the Pope could do was to excommunicate his persecutors: he could not open the gates of his prison. Longchamp then communicated with his friends in England, and by them the Great Council was induced to raise the money—100,000 marks—demanded for his ransom. He landed at Sandwich in March 1194, after an absence of four years, of which fourteen months had been spent in prison.

CHAPTER XI.—INTRIGUES AT HOME.

1. **Two Factions.**—We must now consider the course of events in England during Richard's absence. As we have already seen, William of Longchamp and Hugh de Pudsey were appointed guardians of the realm. Before leaving England, Richard, as a precautionary measure, exacted a promise from his brother John and his half-brother Geoffrey, Archbishop of York, that they would not enter England during the next three years; but John was soon afterwards released from this promise. The co-Justiciars very soon quarrelled, and De Pudsey was driven from office. Longchamp, a man of low birth, unscrupulous and ostentatious, brought upon himself by his arbitrary acts the hearty hatred of nobles and people. John was as unscrupulous as the Justiciar, and although Richard had

bestowed on him estates in England equal to one-third of the kingdom, he had begun to intrigue against his brother almost from the moment that the King left England. John and Longchamp were enemies, and they formed two great parties or factions in the country. John wished to secure the succession to the crown for himself, while William upheld the claims of young Arthur of Brittany, son of John's elder brother Geoffrey.

2. **Persecution of the Jews: 1190.**—Soon after Richard left England, the persecution of the Jews was resumed in different parts of the country—particularly in Stamford, in Norwich, and in York. In York, five hundred Jews, including women and children, took refuge in the castle, carrying their treasures with them; and when they saw that resistance was hopeless, they killed their wives and children, fired the castle, and slew themselves.

3. **Expulsion of Longchamp: 1191.**—The intrigues of Earl John's friends soon began to give trouble to the King's Government. Many of them appeared in arms on his behalf, and John himself came to England from Normandy and seized the Castles of Nottingham and Tickhill (June 1191). He was followed a few months later by his half-brother, Archbishop Geoffrey; but Longchamp was on the alert, and had him seized and thrown into prison within a week of his arrival. John made himself Geoffrey's champion; and thus the two parties in the state were brought into sharp conflict. John's party triumphed. Longchamp was expelled from office and retired to Normandy. He was succeeded as Justiciar by Walter, Archbishop of Rouen. In April 1192 news of the doings of his enemies at home reached Richard in Palestine, and he began to prepare for his return. He did not, however, sail from Acre till October, and soon afterwards he was wrecked and imprisoned, as has already been described.

4. **Intrigues of Earl John.**—In the meantime, Earl John had come to an understanding with Philip Augustus of France which was dishonourable to both. It amounted to treason on the part of the one and to perjury on the part of the other. John seized Normandy, surrendered a portion of it to Philip,

and did homage to that King for the remainder. Not satisfied with his unlawful gain, Philip soon afterwards attempted to appropriate to himself the whole province. About this time Richard's place of confinement was discovered, and negotiations for his release were concluded. When Philip heard of the agreement, he wrote to John: "Take care of yourself; the devil is loose again." Even after the ransom money had been wrung from the English people, in the form of taxes levied on all classes, John and Philip attempted by bribes to secure his detention; and he was actually detained six months after his release had been agreed to. Before Richard returned to England, Walter of Rouen had been succeeded as Justiciar by Hubert,¹ Archbishop of Canterbury, a fine example of the ecclesiastical statesman of medieval times. He was a wise and vigorous administrator, having been trained by his uncle, Ranulf de Glanvil, in the methods and ideas of Henry II.

5. Richard's Return: 1194.—When he recovered his freedom, Richard found his crown of England and his French possessions equally in danger. His brother John aimed at the one, the French King desired a share of the others; but the efforts of Eleanor the Queen-mother and Hubert the Justiciar had defeated these designs. Richard acted with his usual promptness and energy. He captured the Castles of Nottingham and Tickhill,² which John had seized; and thereafter John's party melted rapidly away. With the assistance of Hubert, all opposition was put down in less than a month; and then the King was crowned at Winchester for the second time, the King of Scots taking part in the ceremony (April 17). Longchamp was rewarded for his services to the King with the office of Chancellor.

6. The French War: 1194.—Having thus settled the affairs of England, Richard proceeded to deal with those of Normandy, and to punish his enemy, the King of France. He passed

¹ *Hubert*, Hubert Walter, nephew of Ranulf de Glanvil; accompanied Richard on his crusade; visited him in prison in Germany. Richard sent him to England to act as regent, and to raise the ransom.

Dean of York, 1186; Bishop of Salisbury, 1189; Archbishop of Canterbury, 1193; Justiciar, 1194-98; Chancellor, 1199; died 1205.

² *Tickhill*, in Yorkshire.

over to Normandy in May. There he met his mother Eleanor, through whose mediation he was reconciled to his brother John. He then marched against Philip Augustus, whom he defeated at Freteval¹ (July 15, 1194), capturing on the field the records and charters of France, which it was the custom for the King to carry about with him. This defeat caused the French to withdraw from Normandy, and also from Touraine and Maine, and to propose a truce for twelve months, to which Richard consented. Richard spent the time in Normandy preparing to renew hostilities.

7. Hubert's Government: 1194-1198.—The government of England during Richard's absence was in the strong hands of Hubert, the Justiciar, who was practically Regent, and who also held the office of Papal Legate. On him devolved the disagreeable task of raising the vast sums of money which Richard required for the prosecution of the war. His exactions excited serious discontent among all classes of the English people, who complained that after they had been taxed enormously for the ransom of their King, he had remained only two months in their midst, and was now spending their money in defence of his foreign possessions. The discontent found expression in London, where William Fitz-Osbert stirred up the poorer citizens against the Justiciar. London had now become a place of great importance. In the reign of Henry II. it was recognized as the capital, Winchester having been destroyed in the civil war of Stephen. In Richard's reign (1191) its municipal corporation was formally recognized—a change which marked the decline of baronial authority and the rise of mercantile influ-

Abroad.—In 1195 the Fourth Crusade was undertaken by the Emperor Henry VI., whose real object was to secure Sicily, as a means of reaching the Eastern Empire. Having secured Sicily, the Crusaders proceeded to the East, and took Beyrout; but Henry's death, in 1197, put an end to the Crusade. In 1198 the Fifth Crusade was preached by Pope Innocent III. Count Baldwin of Flanders, its leader, took Constantinople in 1203, and again in 1204, when he was made Emperor over one-fourth of the East. He was made prisoner by the King of Bulgaria in 1206, and was never heard of afterwards. The Crusaders never reached Jerusalem.

¹ *Freteval*, on the Loir, near Vendôme.

ence within the city. Henceforth the Mayor of London was regarded as a semi-independent potentate, whose power the King could not afford to disregard. A serious riot took place in London early in 1196, caused by Hubert's oppressive taxes. It was promptly suppressed, and Fitz-Osbert, who had instigated it, was seized and executed. In 1198, Hubert retired from the justiciarship, and confined himself to his ecclesiastical office. He was succeeded by Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, who held the office for sixteen years.

8. Death of Richard: 1199.—The French war lingered on, interrupted by occasional truces, but attended by no decisive results till 1198, when the French sustained a severe defeat at Gisors. Philip, who narrowly escaped with his life on that occasion, agreed to a truce for five years, and Richard prepared to return to England. He was prevented from doing so by a petty rebellion in Poitou, where one of his vassals refused to give up to him some treasure found on his estate. While Richard besieged him in the Castle of Chalus,¹ he was struck on the shoulder by an arrow from a cross-bow on one of the towers. The head was extracted by an unskilful surgeon, and mortification set in. After the castle was taken, the archer, Gourdon, was brought a captive to the dying monarch's bed; but Richard pardoned him. In spite of this, the unhappy youth was flayed alive by order of the leader of the mercenaries. Richard was buried at the feet of his father in Fontevraud:² his heart was bequeathed to the citizens of Rouen. He had previously acknowledged John as his successor.

9. Character of Richard.—The most prominent feature of the character of this King was his talent for war, which approached to military genius. His personal courage obtained for him the surname of "the Lion's Heart" (*Cœur de Lion*). His passion for war and adventure led him to devote his life

Abroad.—In 1198, Philip of Swabia (youngest son of Frederick Barbarossa) succeeded Henry VI. as Emperor. The crown was also claimed by Otto IV., who triumphed in 1209.

¹ Chalus, near Limoges, in Limousin.

² Fontevraud, in Anjou.

to these objects, and to neglect the interests of his subjects, whom he regarded chiefly as the means of furnishing him with supplies. His impetuous and violent nature brought him into frequent conflict with those about him, and made him an unpleasant ally. He was ambitious, haughty, self-willed, and cruel. Yet his character was not without good points. Though a relentless enemy, he was a generous and loyal friend; and those whom he attached to himself were devoted to his service. His love of poetry and music, and his skill in these arts, have led to his being reckoned among the Troubadours, or Provençal poets.

10. **The Constitution.**—Richard's prolonged absence from England, and his indifference to its affairs, excepting in regard to the raising of money, threw a great deal of power into the hands of the Justiciars, especially of Archbishop Hubert. Two features of his administration deserve special attention—namely, the growth of centralization, and the adoption of the principle of representation. The former was shown in the transference of many causes from the local to the central courts, and in the curtailment of the power of sheriffs, who were forbidden to act as justices in their own counties. The principle of representation was adopted in the selection of Juries of Presentment (p. 103). Under Henry II. they were nominated by the sheriff: they were now selected by four knights in each county, who were presumably chosen by the freeholders. To representative juries was also intrusted, on several occasions, the duty of assessing the taxes payable within each county. That was done in 1194, and again in 1198, when surveys of England, in the manner of the Domesday Book, were made for the purpose of taxation. These juries were, in fact, advisers of the central government in all local affairs, and were the first examples of that local representation which by-and-by resulted in an elected Parliament.

It should be noted that these changes were made in connection with the raising of taxes. The King's demands for

Abroad.—In 1198, Innocent III. succeeded to the papedom.

money were enormous and constant, and his Justiciars saw the necessity of adopting regular and systematic methods of meeting them. The chief of the new taxes levied was a land-tax, or plough-tax, called *Carucage*,¹ which was, in fact, a revival of the Dane-geld. The oppressive burden of these taxes weakened the bond between the Crown and the people, by which in previous reigns the aristocracy had been kept in check. The effects of this were more manifest in the next reign.

11. **Effects of the Crusades.**—Though the Crusades nearly all failed in the object they had in view, they had important incidental effects, chiefly social. They excited a kindlier feeling among the nations leagued in a common cause; they opened the East to commerce, by which England and other Western states were enriched; they drained the country of those restless spirits whose broils convulsed society unceasingly; lastly, and of most importance, they weakened the power of the nobles, who, in order to raise money, were forced to part with their estates.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1190. Persecution of the Jews.
 1190. The Third Crusade.
 1191. Expulsion of Longchamp.
 1192. Richard's imprisonment.

1194. French War, till 1199.
 1194. Government of Archbishop Hubert, till 1198.
 1199. Death of Richard.

GREAT NAMES.

Philip Augustus, King of France, the Crusader.
 Saladin, the Saracen Sultan, or Emperor.
 Leopold, Archduke of Austria.
 Henry VI., Emperor of Germany.
 Earl John, Richard's brother, afterwards King.
 William of Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, Chancellor and Justiciar.

Geoffrey, Archbishop of York, Richard's half-brother.
 Walter of Rouen, Justiciar.
 Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, nephew of Ranulf de Glanvill; Justiciar.
 Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, Justiciar.

¹ *Carucage*, from Latin, *caruca*, a plough.

REIGN OF JOHN¹ (ANJOU).

1199-1216.

CHAPTER XII.—LOSS OF FRENCH PROVINCES.

1. **Accession of John: 1199.**—John's title to succeed his brother was not undisputed. He was not, in fact, the nearest heir to the throne, for his elder brother Geoffrey had left a son—Arthur, Duke of Brittany—who was now a boy of twelve years. Arthur's claim was supported by Philip Augustus of France, whose policy was to separate the French provinces from the English crown, with the view of attaching them to his own. In pursuance of this scheme, Philip allowed Arthur to be recognized as Duke in Anjou, Maine, and Touraine. John, however, was acknowledged in Normandy. Through the influence of Archbishop Hubert, Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, the Justiciar, and William, Earl of Pembroke,² the Earl Marshal, he was soon afterwards acknowledged at a Council at Northampton as King of England. He landed at Shoreham in May, and was crowned at Westminster.

2. **Prince Arthur.**—The contest with Arthur lasted for three years, the greater part of which John spent abroad, paying only occasional visits to England, where the government was

Abroad.—About the year 1200 the University of Paris (the first in Europe) was founded.

¹ *John* (Lackland), fifth son of Henry II. Born 1167. Married (1) *Hadwisa* of Gloucester; (2) *Isabella* of Angoulême. Issue, two sons and three daughters. Reigned 17 years.

² *Earl of Pembroke*. He was Strongbow's son-in-law. (See note, p. 100, and Genealogical Tree, p. 128.) The office of Earl Marshal was made hereditary in his family.

managed by Fitz-Peter, and by Hubert, now Chancellor. John's first mistake was made in connection with his second marriage. Having divorced his first wife, Hadwisa of Gloucester, he was negotiating for the hand of a Princess of Portugal, when he fell in love with Isabella of Angoulême, the affianced wife of the Count of La Marche. He carried her off and married her, and was crowned a second time along with her at Westminster in October 1200. This violent and lawless act gave many of his foreign vassals an excuse for withdrawing their allegiance, and made the Count of La Marche his sworn enemy. At the instigation of the Count, Philip, who had already acknowledged John as King of England, broke his alliance, and sent an army into Poitou to support Arthur's claim there. Arthur and La Marche besieged the Castle of Mirabeau,¹ in which Queen Eleanor, John's mother, lay sick. John, with one of those bursts of energy that occasionally relieved his indolent life, suddenly attacked the besiegers, defeated them utterly, and took many prisoners, including La Marche, Arthur, and his sister Eleanor (July 1202). Arthur was sent first to Falaise, and then to Rouen, where he disappeared. The common belief was that he was murdered by John's own hand, and that his body was thrown into the Seine. His sister was sent to England, and was imprisoned in various castles till her death at Bristol in 1241.

3. **Loss of Normandy : 1204.**—The Bretons, assuming Arthur to be dead, at once took up arms on behalf of his sister Eleanor, now their Duchess. They had the support of the King of France, who invaded Normandy, and called on John as his vassal to answer for the death of Arthur, or to produce him alive. John disregarded the summons of his suzerain, and was thereupon denounced as a traitor and a murderer, and was declared to have forfeited all his possessions in France (1203). These declarations were speedily followed by active measures. Castle after castle fell into the hands of the French King, and at last Rouen, the capital, was the only stronghold that remained to

¹ *Mirabeau*, in Poitou, south-west of Tours.

John. That place was obliged to capitulate in June 1204, and then Normandy was practically conquered. Anjou, Maine, and Touraine also submitted to Philip. John made preparations for an attempt to recover Normandy in 1205, but the disaffection manifested by his barons caused him to abandon them. In the following year he raised a large army and invaded France, landing near Rochelle. He succeeded in capturing Montauban and in burning Angers. Then he made a two years' truce with Philip, which was practically a renunciation of his French possessions.

4. **Effects of the Change.**—Humiliating as the position of the English King now was, there was no reason to regret the exclusion of England from the Continent. The attention of her rulers was no longer distracted between the interests at home and the interests abroad. As the country ceased to be embroiled in Continental quarrels, it became both independent and self-dependent, and its nationality grew and strengthened.

CHAPTER XIII.—THE KING AGAINST THE POPE.

1. **The King and the Pope.**—Ever since the time of Rufus, as we have seen, a struggle for supremacy had been going on between the Crown and the Church. Rufus contended with Anselm about the temporalities of his see. Henry I. contended with Anselm about investitures. Henry II. contended with Becket about the jurisdiction of the civil courts over clerical offenders. The old quarrel was renewed by King John in connection with the election of an Archbishop of Canterbury, but the King's antagonist was the Pope himself.

2. **Death of Hubert: 1205.**—Archbishop Hubert died in 1205. His death was a great loss to the King, and also to the country. Hubert had practically ruled England during the latter half of Richard's reign, and he had been John's chief adviser since he came to the throne. He had wrung vast sums of money from the unwilling people, but he had secured that

the government and the law were respected. The question arose, Who should succeed him as Archbishop? The right of election lay with the monks of Christchurch, Canterbury, of which monastery the Primate was abbot; but the monks had been accustomed to elect the nominee of the King, and it had also been usual to consult the bishops of the province. Disregarding this custom, the junior monks elected Reginald, the sub-prior. When the senior monks heard rumours of what had been done, they took counsel with the King, and by his orders elected John de Grey, Bishop of Norwich, one of his ministers of state. Messengers were sent from each body to inform the Pope of what had been done. The bishops also sent messengers to Rome to complain that they had been ignored in the election.

3. Election of Stephen Langton.—The Pope (Innocent III.) had a policy of his own to carry out, and he took this opportunity to do so. His aim was to make the Church in England independent of the Crown, and dependent on the Roman see. On the former ground he objected to the interference of the King in the election, and on the latter ground to the interference of the bishops. The Pope also objected strongly to the appointment of men to bishoprics because they were useful ministers of state and helpful to the King. On these grounds he rejected the nominees of both sections of the monks, and instructed those of them who were in Rome to appoint his friend Stephen Langton,¹ and he proceeded to consecrate him at Viterbo,² June 1207.

4. John's Vengeance on the Church.—John was furious when the news of the Pope's action reached him. He refused to receive Stephen in England. For accepting the Pope's nominee, the monks of Canterbury were expelled from Christchurch, and all their property was seized by the King's order. John had already on hand a separate quarrel with the bishops. Otto, who was contesting the throne of the German Empire

¹ *Langton.* He had made the acquaintance of Innocent III. at Paris, where both had studied. In 1206, the Pope made him a cardinal; Archbishop of Canterbury, 1206; consecrated, 1207; headed the

barons who obtained the Great Charter, 1215; suspended by the Pope, 1215; recalled from exile, 1220; died, 1228.

² *Viterbo*, a city 40 miles north-west of Rome.

with Philip, was his nephew; and John, in order to send him assistance, demanded one-thirteenth of all property, whether secular or religious. At the Council of St. Albans the bishops refused to comply with his demand. Archbishop Geoffrey of York was so angry that he excommunicated the King's advisers, whereupon he was deprived of his see, and fled to France. John had thus ranged against him the monks and the bishops, as well as the Pope.

5. The Papal Interdict: 1208.—The Pope retaliated by putting England under an interdict of the severest kind, the publication of which he intrusted to the Bishop of London and two other prelates. The churches were closed; all religious services were forbidden, excepting baptism and extreme unction; the dead were cast without prayer into unconsecrated ground; the statues of the saints were shrouded in black. To counteract the interdict, which had a most depressing effect on the people, John seized the goods of those of the clergy who obeyed it; and many of them, terrified by the King's threats, disregarded the Papal injunction. All the bishops but three left England. John appealed to his subjects for support, but not in a form that was likely to conciliate them. He exacted from them a new oath of allegiance, and demanded from the barons their sons as hostages, so as to prevent them from taking arms against him. The most powerful of the barons flatly refused, saying that they would not trust their children to a man who had slain his own nephew. Some of them prepared to defend themselves in their strongholds; others fled to Ireland or to Scotland.

6. Homage from the Scottish King: 1209.—John acted with no little vigour in the circumstances. In the beginning of his reign (1200) he had received homage from William of Scotland for the earldom of Huntingdon and other English possessions. Now that many Englishmen had taken refuge in Scotland, he resolved to exact homage once more from the Scottish King. He marched northward to Northumberland in 1209, and obtained from William not only homage, but also tribute, as a result of which the English refugees retired to

Ireland. He was forced, however, to abandon a design of building a strong castle on the English side of the Tweed, opposite Berwick.

7. John excommunicated: 1209.—John's stubborn resistance forced Innocent to take another step against him. In November he pronounced on him personally sentence of excommunication. John tried to conceal the fact, but he failed; and when it became known, he feared that the result would be to detach from him his personal friends and attendants, and to give his barons an excuse for turning against him. His position was desperate, and he acted with equal boldness and unscrupulousness. To procure more money from his barons was hopeless; but to defend himself against them, he extorted large sums from the Jews, and also from the clergy. He became restless and impetuous, moving nervously from place to place. He passed over to Ireland (June 1210), and reduced the English settlers there. He invaded Wales twice, ravaged the country, and procured the submission of Llewelyn II.

8. John's Submission: 1213.—Toward the end of 1211, the Pope sent Cardinal Pandulph¹ to England as Papal Legate, to try to reconcile the King to the Church; but the peaceful mission failed. Innocent then absolved John's subjects from their allegiance, and threatened to excommunicate all who had intercourse with him. A fresh revolt in Wales revealed to John the startling fact that his own barons were deserting him, and were even conspiring to betray him. Robert Earl Fitz-Walter and others fled to the Continent, whereupon John seized their lands and possessions, and with the proceeds hired mercenary troops. Innocent called upon the King of France to invade England and depose the stubborn monarch. Geoffrey Fitz-Peter the Justiciar, Walter de Grey the Chancellor, and other ministers were still faithful to him, and raised forces for

Abroad.—In 1209, Otto IV. became Emperor.

¹ *Pandulph*, cardinal and minister of Innocent III.; sent to England as Papal Legate, and received John's submission, 1213; left England; returned, and was

appointed Bishop of Norwich, 1218; his commission as Legate recalled at Langton's instance, 1221; died at Norwich, 1226.

his defence. His half-brother, William, Earl of Salisbury,¹ who was his mainstay, ravaged the coast of France with the Cinque Ports fleet, and afterwards burned the French fleet at Damme. But John saw that the game was up. He knew that he could not trust one half of the soldiers marching under his banner. He sent for Pandulph, the Legate, and at Dover (May 1213) took an oath of fealty to the Pope, and pledged himself to pay him an annual tribute of one thousand marks. John invited the banished bishops to return to England, and the Pope took the contrite King under his protection.

CHAPTER XIV.—THE GREAT CHARTER.

1. **The King and the Barons.**—The remainder of John's reign was occupied with his famous quarrel with his barons and his people. The prime causes of the quarrel were his extortionate demands for money from all classes of his subjects, and his arbitrary and cruel conduct when he was resisted. The loosening of the bond of allegiance began to be evident after the Papal interdict was issued (1208), and was still more marked after the King's excommunication (1209). When some of the boldest openly defied him, they were either driven into exile or were treated with gross cruelty, and their sons who had been given up as hostages were put to death (1211). The Welsh revolt of the following year showed him how little trust he could place in them. When he prepared to invade France in 1213, his barons refused point-blank to follow him, and he had to delay his expedition till the next year. John believed that a great victory abroad would restore his prestige at home, and he had formed an alliance with his nephew, the Emperor Otto, and Count Ferrand of Flanders. The defeat of his allies at Bouvines² (July 1214), when his half-brother Salisbury was taken prisoner, and his own repulse in Anjou,

¹ *Earl of Salisbury.*—William Longespée, | iam Fitz-Patrick, Earl of Salisbury. He
a natural son of Henry II. He obtained | died in 1226.
his title by marrying Ela, heiress of Will- | ² *Bouvines*, 70 miles south-east of Calais,

disappointed all his hopes. He made a five years' truce with France, and returned to England to deal with his refractory barons (October).

11
2. **The New Nobility.**—Note must be taken of a great change which had been coming over the nobility of England since the time of Henry II. That King had filled his court with foreigners—men of Anjou and Poitou; and they or their descendants had, to a large extent, supplanted the old Norman aristocracy. The King had distributed among them all the offices and favours at his disposal. He had married them to the rich heiresses under his wardship, according to the feudal law, and made them guardians of rich orphans under age. By their exactions, the new courtiers soon rendered themselves as odious to the English citizens as they were to the nobles of Norman origin, and thus the two races that inhabited England were brought together by a common feeling. Here we may date the birth of a new national spirit, binding all who were born on English soil. When John came into conflict with his barons, he had no longer the people on his side. Nobles and people were banded together against the King and his foreign favourites. When Geoffrey Fitz-Peter died in 1213, John appointed as Justiciar in his room Peter des Roches, a native of Poitou, who was as great a tyrant as the King. In the following year the citizens of London, for gladly welcoming the barons, were denounced as traitors, and John withdrew his protection of the city (May 1214).

3. **Resolution of the Barons.**—Nor could John rely on the support of the Church. Stephen Langton, Cardinal and Archbishop of Canterbury, whose nomination to that see John had opposed, appeared as the chief champion of English freedom in this struggle between people and King. Born in Lincolnshire or Devonshire, he grafted on a stem of English growth the polish and subtlety which could then be acquired only at Paris or at Rome. At a Great Council, held in St. Paul's in 1213, he laid before the assembled prelates and barons the charter granted by Henry I. in 1100, but swept out of memory by the storms of a changeful century. Here was a base of operations

for statesmen who were destined to lay the great foundation-stone of the Constitution. On this forgotten fragment the Great Charter was to rise. Meeting in the Abbey of St. Edmundsbury¹ on November 20th, 1214, the confederate patriots swore solemnly that if the King refused their just demands, they would not sheathe the sword until they had wrested from him a charter under his own seal granting what they asked.

4. **John's Appeal to the Church.**—When, in the first week of January 1215, a stern band entered John's presence and laid their demands before him, he asked for time to consider the petition. Easter week being fixed for the giving of a final answer, the King set himself during the intervening months to sow dissension among his enemies, and to throw up what defences he could against the encroachments of his nobles. He surrendered to the Pope the privilege claimed by his predecessors of electing abbots and bishops, thinking thus to bribe the clergy; and he placed himself more securely yet under the Church's wing by solemnly swearing that he would lead a crusading army to the Holy Land. At the same time, he brought over mercenaries from Poitou to support his shaking throne. The Pope did what he could to protect his royal vassal. He censured Langton and the barons for their resistance to the King; but they were not thus to be turned from their purpose.

5. **The Charter signed: 1215.**—Easter week came. The King lay at Oxford. The barons, having chosen Fitz-Walter as their leader, with the title of "Marshal of the Army of God and Holy Church," marched from Stamford to Brackley,² where they met Langton and the Earl Marshal, by whom they sent forward to the King a list of the needed reforms. When

Scotland.—In 1214 William the Lion died, and was succeeded by his son Alexander II. He became the ally of the discontented barons, who, in 1216, put him in possession of the northern counties.

¹ *Bury St. Edmunds* is the chief town of West Suffolk, and lies on the river Lark. The ruins of a magnificent abbey still adorn the town.

² *Stamford*, lying on the Welland, partly

in Lincolnshire and partly in Northamptonshire, was one of the "Five Burghs" of the Danes.—*Brackley*, in the south of Northamptonshire, lies near one of the headstreams of the Ouse.

Langton read the parchment in the hearing of the King, John, at whose elbow stood Pandulph, the Pope's envoy, burst into a furious rage. "And why do they not demand my crown also?" he cried; adding, with an oath, "I will not grant them liberties that will make me a slave." While the barons were besieging Northampton Castle, they received assurances that London was on their side. Thither they marched, taking Bedford on the way; and on Sunday, the 24th of May, through open gates and silent streets, they entered the capital while the citizens were at church. When John found the whole of the north of England and the greater part of the south, including the capital, against him, he had no alternative but to yield. He sent Pembroke to London to arrange with the barons a place and a time at which he could meet them and grant their demands. They met at Runnymede,¹ on the Thames, not far from Staines,² on June 15, 1215—one



of the most memorable dates in English history. John was accompanied by Pandulph, now Bishop of Norwich, Pembroke, and the Master of the English Templars. The barons, who formed the more numerous body, were headed by Fitz-Walter. Their delegates met the King on an island in the river, and there, after a discussion which lasted several hours, John put his signature and his seal to *Magna Carta*—the Great Charter of English freedom.

6. Provisions of the Charter.—In this famous Charter, which has been well summarized as "a solemn protest against the evil of arbitrary arrest and arbitrary taxation," the rights of

¹ *Runnymede*.—This place is called in the Great Charter "Runing mede inter Windlesorum et Staines." By some writers the phrase is said to mean the "meadow of council;" but it more probably derived

its name from a small stream that flowed through it.

² *Staines* is a market-town of Middlesex, situated on the left bank of the Thames, about 17 miles from London.

all classes are laid down with unmistakable distinctness. The Church was secured in its rights, and in freedom of election. Barons and citizens alike were protected against the tyrannical abuse of feudal relations by the King. Their property was shielded by an article which said, "No scutage nor aid shall be imposed on the tenants-in-chief, *except by the Great Council of the realm*, unless it be to redeem the King's body, to make his eldest son a knight, and once to marry his eldest daughter; and that to be a reasonable aid: and in like manner shall it be concerning the *Tallage* and Aids of the city of London, and of other cities which from this time shall have their liberties; and that the city of London shall fully have all its liberties and free customs as well by land as water." The person of the freeman was thus protected: "No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or be disseised of his freehold, or liberties, or free customs, or be outlawed or exiled, or be any other wise destroyed; nor will we pass sentence on him, nor go against him, *but by lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land*. We will sell to no man, we will not deny or delay to any man, justice or right." The holding of the freeman, the goods of the merchant, the tools of the villein were not to be torn from their owners. The section promising the immediate trial of prisoners seems to foreshadow the *Habeas Corpus Act*. The King bound himself, also, to dismiss his foreign mercenaries and military adventurers, and also the ministers who had supported him in his tyrannical acts. He promised to do justice to the King of Scots and to the Welsh. A committee of twenty-four barons and the Mayor of London was appointed to carry out the Charter.

7. Civil War: 1216.—John had had no intention of being bound by the Charter, even when signing it. His acceptance of it was an expedient to gain time. He is said to have given way to a violent fit of rage when he returned to Windsor. He was no doubt mortified at finding himself out-manœuvred

Abroad.—In 1215 the Mongols, under Genghis Khan, having conquered a great part of Tartary, overran China. The Mongols were natives of Mongolia, on the north of China. Their conquest of China was completed in 1279; but they were expelled by the Chinese in 1368.

by his barons ; but he immediately set himself to undo what his hand had done. Still regarding the Church as his mainstay, he at once called on the Pope to annul the Charter. Innocent complied with the request of his faithful vassal, and ordered Langton to excommunicate all those who had had any share in forcing the Charter on the King. The Primate refused to excommunicate himself and his friends. Innocent issued further orders, but they were of no avail. John became bolder when he heard of the arrival of the mercenary troops for whom he had sent to Poitou. The barons had succeeded in capturing Rochester Castle ; but the mercenaries compelled the garrison to surrender, and many of them were hanged. John then let loose on the country his foreign troops, and they laid waste the north of England, burning and slaying wherever they went. He himself marched into Scotland to punish Alexander for having seized Northumberland ; and before retiring, he burned Roxburgh, Dunbar, Haddington, and Berwick, and the Abbey of Coldingham.

8. **Death of John : 1216.**—The barons then offered the crown to Louis, the Dauphin of France, who was married to John's niece. With the consent of his father Philip, he accepted the offer, and landed at Sandwich in May 1216. He succeeded in retaking Rochester Castle, and received the homage of the chief barons at London ; but he failed at Dover and Winchester, and he was repulsed at Windsor. In these enterprises he lost time as well as prestige. What did his cause most injury, however, was his premature distribution of English fiefs among his French nobles. In disgust and jealousy, some of the barons returned to John and helped him to capture Lincoln. Marching southward from Lincoln to meet Louis, his baggage and treasure, including the crown jewels, were swept away by the rising tide as his army crossed the Wash. He himself narrowly escaped drowning. The catastrophe preyed on his overstrained mind. Next day (October 12) he was seized with illness at Swineshead. Unwilling to retard the progress of the army, he caused himself to be carried in a litter. He reached Newark on the 16th, and he died

there three days later. He was buried at Worcester, as he himself had directed.

9. **Character of John.** — John's capacity as a ruler was spoiled by his selfishness and viciousness as a man. There was scarcely a redeeming point in his character. He was licentious, treacherous, tyrannical, and cruel. When he ascended the throne, England was in a splendid position of power and independence. Within a few years he lost every acre of the splendid French possessions of his father. He humiliated England by making her a fief of the Papal Crown. He died in a conflict with his own subjects headed by a foreign prince who, if he had succeeded, would have made England an appendage of the French Crown.

10. **The Constitution.** — The reign of John was made famous in the history of the Constitution by an event for which he deserves no credit—the granting of the Great Charter. It was secured by a combination of the clergy, the nobility, and the people against the Crown; and as the Crown was forced to make concessions to each, its power was limited in several directions. The chief provisions of the Charter have already been mentioned. The most important constitutional changes it introduced were the provision that special aids and scutages were to be voted by a Council consisting of the bishops and the greater barons, summoned individually, and of the lesser barons and the tenants-in-chief, summoned by a general writ addressed to the sheriff; that the Court of Common Pleas should always sit at Westminster; and that cases relating to property should be tried by a jury in the County Court, before the royal Justices, and four knights chosen by the shire quarterly. "Thirty-two times," says Sir Edward Coke, "have the Great Charter and the Charter of the Forests¹ been confirmed by Acts of Parliament."

11. **Notes of Progress.** — During John's reign London Bridge was finished; letters of credit² were first used in En-

¹ *Charter of the Forests*, first signed by Henry III. in 1217.

² *Letter of credit*, a letter addressed by a merchant or a banker in one place to a

merchant or a banker in another place, authorizing the latter to credit the bearer, or person named in it, with a certain sum of money.

gland ; and the custom of annually electing a Lord Mayor and two Sheriffs of London was begun, Henry Fitzalwyn being the first *Lord Mayor*.

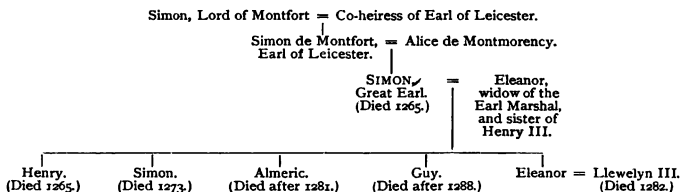
CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1202. Capture and disappearance of Prince Arthur. | 1209. John excommunicated. |
| 1204. Loss of Normandy. | 1213. John's submission to the Pope. |
| 1207. Langton elected Archbishop. | 1214. Battle of Bouvines. |
| 1208. The Papal Interdict. | 1215. The Great Charter signed. |
| | 1216. Civil War: Death of John. |

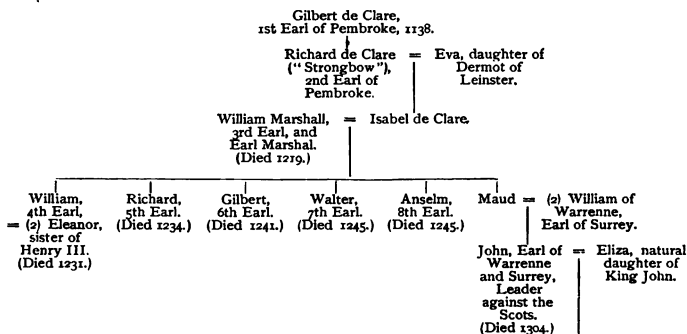
GREAT NAMES.

- | | |
|---|---|
| Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, Justiciar. [Chancellor. | Innocent III., Pope. |
| Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Cardinal. | Walter de Grey, Chancellor. |
| ✓ Pandulph, Cardinal and Papal Legate. | William, Earl of Salisbury, John's half-brother. |
| William the Lion, King of Scotland. | William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke. |
| | Robert, Earl Fitz-Walter, a leader of the barons. |
| | Louis, the Dauphin of France. |

THE MONTFORTS.



THE MARSHALLS, EARLS OF PEMBROKE.



(See page 206).

REIGN OF HENRY III.¹ (ANJOU).

1216-1272.

CHAPTER XV.—THE RIVAL JUSTICIARS.

1. **Accession of Henry III. : 1216.**—As Louis held London and the southern counties, and Westminster was therefore not available, young Henry was crowned at Gloucester (October 28, 1216) by Peter des Roches,² the Bishop of Winchester. This was the doing of the Earl of Pembroke, who, along with Gualo, the Papal legate, took the management of affairs. The regents thought it prudent in the circumstances that the young King should renew homage to the Pope ; but that was immediately followed by the confirmation of the Great Charter at a council held at Bristol (November 12). It was not thought necessary, however, to bind the young King so stringently as his father ; and therefore the clause forbidding the levy of scutage without consent of the Great Council was omitted, and also that appointing twenty-five barons as a committee to control the King. In the following year, on the expulsion of Louis, the Charter was again confirmed ; and the Charter of Forests was added. The latter curtailed the royal forest-lands, and lightened the penalties by which they were protected.

2. **Expulsion of Louis : 1217.**—Louis did not leave the island

¹ *Henry III.*, eldest son of John. Born 1207. Married Eleanor of Provence. Issue, two sons and two daughters. Reigned 58 years.

² *Des Roches* was a Poitevin and a friend of John, who made him Chancellor in 1213, and Justiciar in 1214. On Pembroke's

death he was appointed guardian of Henry's person (1219). He went abroad in 1221 ; and was abroad again from 1227 till 1231. In the following year he overthrew his rival De Burgh, and held power for two years. He died in 1258.

without a struggle for the crown which had been almost in his grasp; but he was forced to abandon the enterprise by the complete defeat of his army, under the Count of Perche, when besieging Lincoln Castle (May 1217). In the *mêlée* in the streets, called in derision the Fair of Lincoln, the Count of Perche was killed, and Robert Fitz-Walter and many other barons were taken prisoners. Three months later, a fleet sent from France to relieve Louis was destroyed off Calais by Hubert de Burgh, who caused powdered quicklime to be thrown into the air, so that the wind bore it into the eyes of the French. Pembroke besieged Louis in London; but seeing the hopelessness of his cause, the latter made a treaty and left England finally in September.

3. **Hubert de Burgh Regent: 1219.**—On the death of Pembroke in 1219, Hubert de Burgh,¹ the Justiciar, became Regent, and Peter des Roches was appointed guardian of the King's person. With them was associated Bishop Pandulph, who, a year previously, had succeeded Gualo as Papal legate. During the next twelve or thirteen years the administration was practically in the hands of De Burgh. His policy had a twofold aim—the repression of the feudal barons, and the exclusion of foreigners from offices of wealth and influence in England. In this he was supported by Archbishop Langton, while Des Roches favoured the foreigners. De Burgh began by demanding the surrender of the castles that the barons had fortified during the troubles of John's reign; and those who resisted were banished. Pandulph continued for three years to reside at the English court, and to claim for Rome that supremacy which John's submission had recognized; but Langton ere long obtained his withdrawal (1221).

4. **Henry's Majority: 1227.**—Henry was declared of age at twenty-one, and began to reign in person. He had already begun to show that weakness for favourites which was fatal

¹ *De Burgh.* He was one of Richard's ministers; was made Chamberlain by John (1199); was keeper of Prince Arthur at Rouen (1202); and Justiciar in 1215; Regent in 1219; Earl of Kent in 1227; overthrown in 1232; restored in 1234; died in 1243.

to his rule, his chief favourite being Peter des Roches. On attaining his majority he dismissed Des Roches, and acted on the advice of De Burgh. His sympathies, however, were entirely with the foreign party in his Court, which desired the restoration of English influence in France. Advantage had been taken of this by the popular or national party to increase its power. When the King demanded a subsidy for an expedition in 1225 to recover the French provinces, it was granted on condition that he should confirm the Great Charter a third time: thus early was the constitutional principle introduced of making votes of supply depend on concessions to the people.

5. Overthrow of De Burgh: 1232.—The French expedition failed, as did subsequent expeditions in 1230 and 1231. Henry, influenced probably by Des Roches and other favourites, cast the blame of these failures on De Burgh, who was known to be opposed to interference in Continental affairs. That minister's difficulties had been increased by the death in 1228 of Archbishop Langton, to whom, more than to any one else, England was indebted, both for the Great Charter and for the custom of requiring its repeated confirmation. After the Primate's death, the exactions of Rome grew more and more intolerable. The Pope claimed the revenues of all vacant sees, and the land swarmed with Italian clergy. The indignation of the barons and the people was aroused; a wide-spread conspiracy was formed, and riots occurred in several towns. De Burgh was

Scotland.—In 1221, peace was made with Scotland, and Alexander II. was married to Joan, Henry's sister, at York.

In 1222, in consequence of the Border raids, the boundary between England and Scotland was surveyed by a Commission of twelve—six from each country. No frontier line was drawn, but usage settled the division between the countries about this time.

Abroad.—In 1223, Louis VIII. succeeded his father Philip Augustus as King of France. He was killed at the siege of Avignon in 1226, and was succeeded by his son Louis IX.

In 1227, Gregory IX. succeeded to the popedom (till 1241).

In 1229, the Sixth Crusade was undertaken by the Emperor Frederic II., who, though discountenanced by the Pope, succeeded in obtaining from his friend the Sultan, without bloodshed, all that the Crusades had been designed to secure. Jerusalem, and the chief cities of Palestine, were given to the Emperor, and a ten years' truce was concluded.

known to sympathize with the conspiracy. The Papal party accused him of being its instigator. Henry was not unwilling to have an excuse for getting rid of a minister who thwarted his favourite schemes. In 1232, De Burgh was charged with waste of the public money, was disgraced, and cast into prison.

6. Peter des Roches in Power: 1232-1234.—De Burgh was succeeded by Stephen Segrave as Justiciar; but the King took as his chief adviser Peter des Roches, whom he had restored to favour and to power. Des Roches was a greedy and scheming Poitevin, and his promotion was followed by a large influx of his fellow-countrymen, who were favoured at Court, and received the highest and richest posts when vacancies occurred. Disgusted with these proceedings, the English nobles, with Richard, Earl of Pembroke,¹ generally called the Earl Marshal, at their head, remonstrated with the King, and when that failed, they took arms against the Poitevins. The Earl Marshal and others fled to Wales and allied themselves with Llewelyn, and there they were joined by Hubert de Burgh, who escaped from prison (1233). They gained various successes over the Poitevins and over the King's army, and they ravaged the estates of Des Roches and his confederates. Through the treachery of Des Roches, the Earl Marshal was attacked, mortally wounded, and captured, and he died shortly afterwards (October 1234). In the meantime Archbishop Rich boldly pointed out to the King the folly and wickedness of the course he was pursuing. Des Roches and his confederates were dismissed, and the proscribed nobles were pardoned and had their estates restored to them. Hubert de Burgh retained his earldom of Kent, but did not resume his political influence. Indeed, for several years the King was his own minister. The

Abroad.—In 1233, Ferdinand of Leon and Castile took Cordova, Toledo, and other towns, from the Moors, and drove them southwards. The Moors then founded the kingdom of Granada. The famous palace, the Alhambra, was begun in 1248.

¹ Richard, Earl of Pembroke, second son of William, Earl of Pembroke, who was Regent at the beginning of the reign. His eldest brother, William, Earl of Pembroke,

died in 1231. The widow of the latter, Eleanor, the King's sister, afterwards married Simon de Montfort. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 128.)

office of Justiciar was vacant from 1234 till 1258, and the office of Chancellor from 1244 till 1261.

7. **Henry's Marriage: 1236.**—Henry came under the influence of a new set of advisers when, in 1236, he married Eleanor, the daughter of the Count of Provence. The Queen and her uncles, especially her uncle William, Bishop of Valence, acquired entire supremacy over Henry's mind. Crowds of Provençals followed them to England, just as crowds of Poitevins had followed Peter des Roches; and among them the fruits of the royal patronage were distributed, to the exclusion and annoyance of the English nobles. The King's brother, Earl Richard of Cornwall, now became the leader of the discontented barons, and by his wisdom and foresight prevented any serious rupture. Henry was always ready to confirm the Charter, and to promise amendment, on receiving a grant of money; but his promises were seldom kept. The hostility of the barons was roused afresh when, in 1238, the King's sister Eleanor, widow of the Earl of Pembroke, was given in marriage to Simon de Montfort.¹ Though a Norman by birth, his claim through his grandmother to the earldom of Leicester had been acknowledged seven years previously. But he had spent most of his life abroad, and was at first regarded by the English people as a foreigner, and they distrusted him when he was taken into favour as much as they had distrusted the Poitevins and the Provençals. De Montfort's term of favour was short. In 1239 Henry quarrelled with his brother-in-law because he took the side of the Emperor against the Pope, and drove him and his wife from Court and out of England. They were never completely reconciled.

¹ *Simon de Montfort*, grandson of Simon, Lord of Montfort (near Versailles) and Evreux (south of Rouen), who married the sister and co-heiress of the Earl of Leicester (*temp.* Henry II.). His father, the leader of the crusade against the Albigenses, was deprived of his English estates, 1210. Simon came to England in 1230; received the Leicester estates, 1231; was privately married to the King's sister in 1238; driven out of England, 1239; joined a

crusade, 1240–41; fought in French war, 1242–43; lived at Leicester, 1243–48; Governor of Gascony, 1248–53; leader of the barons against the King, 1257; one of the Council of fifteen that drew up Provisions of Oxford, 1258; practical governor of England, 1262–63; victorious at Lewes, 1264; caused knights of the shire and representatives of boroughs to be summoned to Parliament, 1265; killed at Evesham, 1265. (See Gen. Tree, p. 128.)

8. Exactions of the Pope.—The consequences of the submission to the Pope took a practical shape. In 1237, Gregory IX. sent Cardinal Otto to England as Papal legate on Henry's invitation. The legate's professed object was to strengthen and reform the Church; but he made it his chief business to extort money from the clergy for the Pope. In the following year, Gregory quarrelled with the Emperor Frederick, and called on Henry as his vassal to send him aid. The clergy, led by Robert Grossetête, Bishop of Lincoln, protested and grumbled, but they had to pay; and when the legate left England in 1241, he took with him vast sums of money and royal promises to favour Italian priests. A great change had been made in the work of the Church in England by the introduction of the Dominicans (or Black Friars) in 1220, and the Franciscans (or Gray Friars) four years later. By their practical piety and their good works the friars endeared themselves to the people, especially to the poor. Boniface of Savoy, one of the Queen's uncles, was chosen Archbishop of Canterbury in 1241. Innocent IV., the new Pope, proved more extortionate even than Gregory. His legate, Master Martin, not only wrung rich gifts from the English clergy, but also seized on vacant benefices and conferred them on his friends and relations.

9. New French War.—Henry undertook a new French war in 1242, at the urgent entreaty of his mother, who had married her former lover, the Count of Marche, and who was anxious to secure Poitou. The battles of Taillebourg and Saintes,¹ though not decisive, inclined the balance in favour of the French King; and truces, often broken, often renewed, led to a peace, by which Henry abandoned the whole of Poitou, and retained Gascony as his sole possession in France. Many of Henry's barons disapproved of his policy and deserted his banner; but he returned to England with a new troop of Poitevins in his train, to the disgust of his own people (1243).

10. Relations with Wales and Scotland.—Wales was in a continuous state of defiance during Henry's reign. English

¹ *Taillebourg and Saintes*, south-east of Rochelle.



armies traversed most of the country several times, but the brave Welsh princes, Llewelyn II.¹ and David his son, maintained their independence in their mountain fastnesses. On the death of Llewelyn in 1240, David II. submitted to Henry in order to secure his help against his brother Griffith; but when Griffith died a prisoner in London, David resumed his ravages on the Marches.—With Scotland the sword was not once drawn during the reign. There were several disputes about the northern counties, but they were amicably settled. When Alexander II. claimed Northumberland as the marriage portion of his wife, a compromise was effected. At the Council of York, the northern counties were recognized as belonging to England; but certain estates in them were to be held by the King of Scots as vassal of the English King (1237). As the earldom of Huntingdon had now passed to the family of David, brother of William the Lion, these northern estates gave the King of England his sole claim to the homage of the Scottish monarch. In 1244, Henry complained that Alexander received English fugitives into his kingdom, and marched northward with an army. When Henry heard that the Scots were preparing to meet him with a force of 100,000 men, he prudently agreed to a treaty of peace arranged by his brother Earl Richard.

CHAPTER XVI.—THE BARONS' WAR.

1. **Universal Discontent: 1244.**—Henry had now succeeded in turning every class of his subjects against him. The clergy complained bitterly of the intolerable exactions of the Pope, and of the transference of English benefices to foreign priests; and they blamed the King for having brought these evils on

Abroad.—In 1243, Innocent IV. succeeded to the papedom (till 1254).

In 1244, the Mongol Tartars, having overrun the Saracen Empire, took Jerusalem, which they pillaged and burned. About this time the Mongol Empire extended from the sea-board of China in the east to the confines of Germany in the west.

¹ *Llewelyn II.*, nephew and successor of David I.

them, and for being powerless to remove them. The nobles complained of the large sums of money which the King extorted from them, and of the foreign favourites who were enriched with their lands and offices. The landowners of lower rank and the freeholders were not less dissatisfied, because of the excessive taxation to which they were subjected. The cities were also heavily burdened. Great tallages were extorted from them, especially from London, again and again, under all manner of excuses. The Jews suffered more, perhaps, than any other class, because of their greater wealth, and the persecution which accompanied the extraction of it.

The spirit of discontent was thus as widespread as the nation. At last, Parliament—for by that name the Great Council now began to be called—was forced to take the matter up. The reforming party began by attacking the King's advisers and the mode of their appointment. The Parliament of 1244, met at London, startled the King by a demand that the Chancellor, the Justiciar, and four other councillors should be elected by the whole body of the nobles. The demand was supported by Simon de Montfort, and apparently also by Earl Richard, the King's brother; but the latter had lately married the Queen's sister, and being distrusted by the reformers, he gradually went over to the foreign party. The bishops were not cordial in supporting the proposal, from their fear of increasing the power of the barons, and it therefore failed; but it showed the direction in which men's minds were moving.

2. Knights of the Shire: 1254.—An important constitutional change was made in 1254, almost by accident. Henry had gone to Gascony to restore order there, the Gascons having complained to him of the severe measures of Simon de Montfort. The Queen and Earl Richard acted as regents in his absence; and having to raise as much money as

Abroad.—In 1249 the Seventh Crusade was undertaken by Louis IX. of France (St. Louis). He was defeated and taken prisoner by the Sultan of Egypt. He returned to France in 1254.

Scotland.—In 1249, Alexander II. was succeeded by his son, Alexander III., who, in 1251, married at York Margaret, daughter of Henry III.

possible, they summoned to Parliament by royal writ two knights from each shire, chosen by the freeholders. That was the first occasion on which elected representatives of any portion of the people had been called to Parliament. Probably the regents thought that these knights would be able to advise Parliament as to the capacity of each district to bear taxation. For whatever reason they were called at first, they continued to be summoned to all subsequent Parliaments.

3. **Henry as a Crusader.**—One of the methods by which Henry obtained money was by announcing a crusade, of which he should be the leader, prompted, perhaps, by the example of "St. Louis" of France. He first received money for the crusade, on which he never started, and then he got more money from those who wished to be absolved from their vows as sworn crusaders. The crusade was turned to another purpose by the adroitness of Innocent IV. After the death of the Emperor Frederick II. (1250), the Pope offered the crown of the Two Sicilies first to Earl Richard and afterwards to Henry's son Edmund. The offer was repeated in 1255 by the new Pope, Alexander IV., who called on Henry as his vassal to dispossess Manfred of Sicily, Frederick's son; and as Manfred was declared a heretic, the war was dignified with the name of a crusade. The Pope assigned to Henry one-tenth of the revenues of the English clergy, from whom the King proceeded to extort large sums. He also dragged more money from the Jews. As the King showed no inclination to begin the war, the Pope threatened him with excommunication. Urged by this spur, he exacted in 1257 a sum of 52,000 marks for behoof of his son, "the King of Sicily."

4. **The Storm gathering: 1257.**—The same year was marked by two other incidents. Earl Richard, the King's brother, was chosen King of the Romans, which gave him the reversion of the imperial crown; and he left England, never to return to it. In a Parliament at Westminster, a violent quarrel arose in the King's presence between William of Valence, the Queen's uncle, and Simon de Montfort. Montfort stated his grievances and those of the barons—the enriching of favourites,

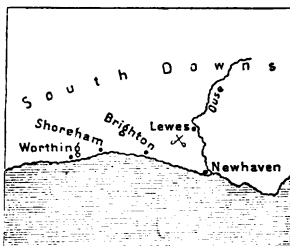
the burdensome taxation, the tyranny of the Pope—with the utmost bluntness. Valence called Montfort “an old traitor and the son of a traitor;” and Montfort retorted in similar terms. Nevertheless Henry promised to consider the demands of the barons, and to meet them again in a Parliament to be held at Oxford at Whitsuntide.

5. The Provisions of Oxford: 1258.—When the Parliament (called “the Mad”) met at Oxford on June 11, 1258, the barons appeared in arms, followed by their retainers, under the pretext of a Welsh war. They at once proceeded to extreme measures. They appointed a committee of twenty-four to reform the State. This committee chose a sub-committee of four, which nominated a Council of fifteen, ten of whom were of the barons’ party. Their leaders were Richard de Clare, Earl of Gloucester, and De Montfort, Earl of Leicester. By this Council the *Provisions of Oxford* were drawn up. They enacted—

1. That four knights should come to Parliament to represent the freeholders of every county; 2. That sheriffs should be chosen annually by vote; 3. That the revenues of the counties should not be farmed; 4. That accounts of the public money should be given every year; 5. That Parliament should meet three times a year—in February, June, and October; 6. That the great officers of State should be chosen by the Council. The King, who was virtually a prisoner in the hands of the barons, swore to accept the Provisions; and in October he issued a new Charter giving effect to them. Reform was, however, retarded by disunion among the barons. There were repeated quarrels between Gloucester and Leicester during the next two years, the former wishing to stop short in the course of reform, the latter desiring to go on. The Poitevin nobles left the country, carrying with them vast sums of money. In the beginning of 1261, the King, with the sanction of the Pope, renounced his adhesion to the Provisions, and prepared for war.

6. Civil War: 1263.—In 1263, the King and the barons agreed to refer their differences to Louis of France, who, in a Council at Amiens, decided in Henry’s favour, and annulled the Provisions as destructive of the authority of the Crown.

This kindled a civil war. Leicester and the barons held London; and when the great bell of St. Paul's rang out, the citizens flocked around his banner. Henry and his son Prince Edward held Oxford, and captured the castles of Northampton and Warwick. Riot, the pillage of foreign merchants, and the murder of unhappy Jews followed. At Lewes, in Sussex, Henry was defeated and taken prisoner (May 14, 1264), and Prince Edward gave himself up next day. An agreement was made, called the Mise¹ of Lewes, to submit the quarrel to a



special court, but it was never fulfilled. Henry and his son remained in custody, and Leicester nominated a Council of nine prelates and nine laymen to govern the realm. The Pope issued a sentence of excommunication against all who adhered to the Provisions; but the document was seized at Dover, and was torn up. The Marchers, headed by Roger Mortimer, Lord of Wigmore, a partisan of the King, took advantage of the civil strife to renew their attacks on the Welsh. As Llewelyn III. was Leicester's ally and his son-in-law, the latter marched against them and defeated them, taking also many of their castles. Leicester spent the winter at Kenilworth, "in all but name a king."

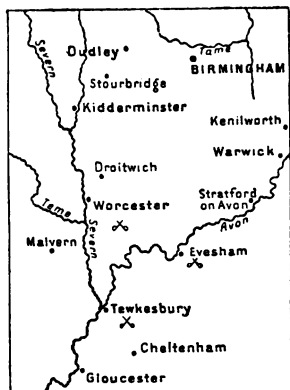
7. Leicester's Parliament: 1265.—Early in the following year, a Parliament was called by Leicester, to which he summoned representatives from cities and boroughs, in addition to the prelates, barons, and knights of the shire already constitutionally comprised in the assembly. This was the first

Scotland.—In 1263, the Norwegian fleet, commanded by King Haco, landed an army on the west coast of Scotland; but they were defeated by King Alexander III.; and Haco died at Kirkwall, in Orkney. In 1266, Magnus, Haco's successor, ceded the Hebrides and the Isle of Man to the King of Scots for a sum of money.

¹ *Mise* (*mees*), a French law term for a case laid before a court. The court was to consist of two Frenchmen and one Englishman.

outline of the modern Parliament—the prelates and barons corresponding to the House of Lords, the others to the House of Commons, which accordingly dates from this time. But these different estates still sat together in one assembly.

8. Battle of Evesham: 1265.—Prince Edward having escaped from his guards at Hereford, where he had been residing “in free custody,” joined Mortimer and Gilbert de Clare, the young Earl of Gloucester, who had abandoned



Leicester's party. With their united forces they surprised Leicester at Evesham, in Worcestershire. The battle was long and bloody. The captive King, who had been forced into the field by Leicester, fell slightly wounded, and would have been killed if he had not cried out, “I am Henry of Winchester, your King.” Edward knew his father's voice, and rushed to his aid. The body of “Sir Simon the Righteous,” as the people called Leicester, was mutilated by the victors; but his

memory was cherished as that of a patriot and a martyr.

9. Henry's later Years: 1265–1272.—The victory of Evesham re-established Henry's supremacy; but the country remained in an unsettled state for many months afterwards, the remnants of the barons' party having taken refuge in Kenilworth Castle and the Isle of Ely. The latter was reduced by Prince Edward in 1267. Then the Prince, deeming his father's throne secure, began to prepare to go on a crusade. He sailed from Dover in August 1270. He gained much renown in the Holy Land, having won several victories over the Saracens and captured Nazareth. After narrowly escaping death by the hand of an assassin at Acre (June 1272),

Abroad.—In 1270 the Eighth Crusade was begun by St. Louis of France; but he died of the plague at Tunis, and Prince Edward of England led the crusaders to Palestine. Philip III. succeeded to the French throne (till 1285).

he made peace with the Saracens and returned to Italy. While Edward was there, his father died at Bury St. Edmunds, and was buried at Westminster (November 20, 1272).

10. **Henry's Character.**—Henry was one of the most incompetent rulers that ever sat on the throne of England. The greatest defects of his character were weakness of will, cowardice, and duplicity. One of the sources of the troubles of his long reign—the second longest¹ in the list of English monarchs—was that no reliance could be placed on his word. His double-dealing appeared in his pretended crusading, and in his alternate acceptance and rejection of the Provisions of Oxford. His weakness appeared in his inability to resist the demands of the Pope, and in his fondness for foreign favourites, on whom he squandered much of the money that he extorted from his subjects. He nearly rebuilt the Church of Westminster, and he enlarged or decorated various other churches.

11. **The Constitution.**—The power of the barons and of the people, especially in London and other large cities, distinctly increased during the reign of Henry III. Though the *Provisions of Oxford* were practically a failure, their substance was repeated in the *Provisions of Westminster* of 1259, which were re-affirmed in 1262 and 1264, and were embodied in statute form by the Parliament of Marlborough in 1267. The royal prerogative was maintained in the *Edict of Kenilworth* (1266); but it acknowledged the obligation of the King to rule according to the law. The most important constitutional event of the reign was the admission to Parliament of representatives of shires (1254) and of boroughs (1265), thus laying the foundation of the House of Commons; for although the writs in the latter case were sent, not to the sheriffs, but to the mayors, the precedent of 1265 was followed in all subsequent Parliaments. The name Parliament was first applied to the Great Council in this reign. It was used by Matthew Paris in 1246. A change also took place in the form of legislation. The legislative acts of the Norman kings were in the form of Charters

¹ Second longest, the longest being that of George III., 60 years.

granted by the kings, and confirmed from time to time. The early Angevin kings, besides issuing charters, legislated by *Assizes* (that is, statutes) issued by the King, with the advice and consent of the Great Council. In the reign of Henry III., legislation took the form of *Provisions* and latterly of *Statutes* founded on petitions prepared by the Parliament. This marks a great advance in the power of Parliament. The *Statute of Marlborough* (1267) is the earliest act bearing the title of *Statute*. The name became common in the next reign.

A proclamation issued by Henry in 1258 was the first state-paper written in the English tongue since the Norman Conquest. In his reign, also, the English and Norman elements in the population were so thoroughly welded together that the distinction between them was lost. England was again made one in race and nationality as in speech.

12. Notes of Progress.—The introduction of the linen manufacture by some Flemings, the use of leaden water-pipes, and of candles instead of wooden torches, were among the improvements of this time. A license to dig coal was now first granted to the people of Newcastle. We may also trace to this reign gold coinage in England. Science was much benefited by the researches of Roger Bacon, a Franciscan friar of Oxford.

CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1216. Earl of Pembroke and Gualo Regents. | 1242. French war. |
| 1217. Expulsion of Louis of France. | 1264. Knights of the Shire in Parliament. |
| 1219. Hubert de Burgh Regent. | 1258. The Provisions of Oxford. [citizens.] |
| 1227. Henry's majority. | 1265. Leicester's Parliament: burgesses and |
| 1232. Fall of De Burgh: Des Roches in power. | 1270. Departure of Prince Edward on a crusade. |
| 1236. Henry's marriage. | 1272. Death of Henry III. |

GREAT NAMES.

- | | |
|---|---|
| William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, Regent. | Richard, Earl of Cornwall, Henry's brother; King of the Romans. |
| Gualo, the Papal legate, Regent. | Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, Henry's brother-in-law, leader of the barons. |
| Hubert de Burgh, Justiciar, guardian of the King's person. | Richard de Clare, Earl of Gloucester, a leader of the barons. |
| Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester, guardian of the King's person. | Prince Edward, elder son of Henry. [law.] |
| Pandulph, Cardinal, Bishop of Norwich. | Alexander II. of Scotland, Henry's brother-in-law. |
| Stephen Segrave, Justiciar. [William.] | Boniface of Savoy, Archbishop of Canterbury, one of the Queen's uncles. |
| Earl Marshal, Richard, Earl of Pembroke, son of William, Bishop of Valence, uncle of Queen Eleanor. | Louis IX. of France; St. Louis the Crusader. |
| Llewelyn II. and David I., Princes of Wales. | Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester. |

REIGN OF EDWARD I.¹ (ANJOU).

1272-1307.

CHAPTER XVII.—DOMESTIC LEGISLATION.

1. **The first English King.**—Though Edward was abroad, and no one knew where he was, or indeed whether he was alive, he was proclaimed King on the day of his father's funeral. Archbishop Giffard of York, the Earl of Cornwall, and the Earl of Gloucester, were appointed Regents, and Walter de Merton was Chancellor. On his way home, Edward spent some time in reducing Gascony to obedience. He also settled a commercial difference with the Countess of Flanders; and then he crossed over to England, landing at Dover on August 2, 1274, nearly two years after his accession. He was crowned, along with his Queen, Eleanor of Castile, on August 19th. Alexander III. of Scotland was present at the ceremony, and received £5 a day for the expenses of his journey. Edward symbolized in his own person the unity to which the nation had attained when he ascended the throne. He was an Englishman at heart, and he fully recognized—what his father had failed to see—that the stability of the throne depended on keeping England for the English. His reign is remarkable in two respects: he was the first English King who ruled through Parliament; and, as a consequence of that, statute law assumed a definite form, as is evidenced by the number of important statutes passed during the reign. So successful was he as a law-maker that he has been called "the English Justinian."²

¹ *Edward I.* (Longshanks), eldest son of Henry III. Born, 1239. Married (1) Eleanor of Castile. Issue, five sons and nine daughters. (2) Margaret of France. Issue, two

sons and one daughter. Reigned 35 years.
² *Justinian*, Roman Emperor of the East, issued a famous code of laws between 528 and 534.

2. **Increased Power of Parliament.**—Edward showed great wisdom in the selection of his ministers. The credit of the important domestic legislation by which his reign is characterized is mainly due to Robert Burnell, who was Chancellor from 1273 till his death in 1292, and is sometimes called “the Great Chancellor.” One of the first acts of the reign was the confirmation of the Charters; and it deserves special notice that the articles of the Great Charter which were excluded at the beginning of his father’s reign were restored and accepted by Edward. As these articles required that the King should not levy scutages or aids, except with the consent of the Great Council, we have here a clear recognition at the very commencement of his reign of the authority of Parliament.

3. **First Statute of Westminster: 1275.**—Edward’s first Parliament met at Westminster in 1275, and passed several important statutes. The chief of these is known as the *First Statute of Westminster*. It dealt with a great variety of matters, its general aim being to revive respect for the law, which had disappeared in the troubles of the two preceding reigns. It regulated feudal incidents and reduced their amounts; it corrected feudal abuses; it regulated the administration of justice, provided for freedom of elections, and secured the rights of the Church. The same Parliament granted the King increased duties on imports and exports, the export duty on English wool, which was in great request on the Continent, being 6s. 8d. on each sack.

4. **The Courts of Justice.**—Though the division of the *Curia Regis* into several courts had begun in the reign of Henry III., the organization of the courts was not completed till Edward’s reign. Out of the King’s Court were formed three courts of Common Law—namely, the Court of Exchequer, the Court of Common Pleas, and the Court of King’s Bench. The *Court of Exchequer* (so called from the “checkered” cloth that covered the table) dealt with assessment and collection of revenue, and was presided over by the Justiciar, or Chief-Justice, who about this time ceased to be a political official. The *Court of Common Pleas* was concerned with civil suits between subject and sub-

ject, and had no criminal jurisdiction. The *Court of King's Bench* (so called because at first the King presided over it in person) was the supreme court. Its jurisdiction was both civil and criminal, and it retained all the business of the old *Curia Regis* that was not transferred to the Court of Exchequer and the Court of Common Pleas.

5. **Statute of Gloucester: 1278.**—The improvement of the administration of justice was one of the main objects of the *Statute of Gloucester*, passed in 1278. It also authorized the issue of writs *Quo warranto*, inquiring into the titles by which lands were held. The object was to determine who were the rightful owners of estates, and to ascertain the amount of the Crown revenues. When Warrenne, Earl of Surrey, was asked to show his titles, he drew his sword and presented it to the judge, saying, "This is my title; with this my ancestors won my land; and with this will I keep it." Warned by the spirited reply, Edward was careful not to press the inquiry further.

6. **Statute of Mortmain: 1279.**—One of the most important of the statutes of Edward was that *De Religiosis*, generally called the *Statute of Mortmain*. This enactment forbade the giving of land or property into the "dead hand" of any ecclesiastical corporation without the King's consent. Corporate lands were not transmitted to heirs, and were therefore not liable to feudal dues. It was common, besides, for men to make feigned gifts to the Church, and to receive them again as Church fiefs, which were free from feudal obligations. The practice had been forbidden in the Great Charter, but it still survived.

7. **Minor Measures.**—Of the less important measures, one dealt with the coinage. It had been the custom to divide the coins, for convenience, by clipping them into halves and quarters. That led to further clipping, and to the consequent debasing of the coinage. It was now enacted that every coin must be round, and a new coinage was issued. In 1283 a *Statute of Merchants* was passed, to enable merchants to recover their debts more readily. A second statute with the same title was

passed two years later, which expressly excluded Jews from its benefits. The members of that race were still the objects of persecution. Edward made ruinous demands on them for money, as his father had done. A severe statute was passed in 1275 against their practice of usury; and they were required to wear on their outer garment "a sign like a tablet, of the length of a palm." At length, in 1290, they were banished from England, with their wives and families, under penalty of death if any were found in the country after the feast of All Saints.

8. **Second Statute of Westminster: 1285.**—This statute, passed in June 1285, laid the foundation of the law of entail, by enacting that lands given to a man and his heirs could not be alienated by the possessor for the time being. The same Act regulated the judicial system, and ordained that Justices of Assize should visit every shire three or four times in the year, to expedite the administration of justice.

9. **Statute of Winchester: 1285.**—In a Parliament held at Winchester in October 1285, a statute was passed to repress felonies and robberies, and to secure the personal safety of travellers. In the same statute the Assize of Arms of Henry II. was amended, and every man was required to have ready in his house the equipment fixed by law as necessary for the preservation of peace.

10. **Third Statute of Westminster: 1290.**—That Edward personally took an active part in these legislative and administrative reforms may be inferred from the fact that during the three years that he spent in Gascony—1286–1289—no important measures were passed in Parliament. On his return, however, the work began again. He ordered strict inquiry into the conduct of judges, sheriffs, and other officers during his absence. For their misdemeanours some, including the Chief-Justice, were banished, while others were heavily fined. In 1290 an Act, known as the Statute *Quia Emptores* ("Whereas pur-

Abroad.—In 1285, Philip IV. became King of France (till 1314). In 1294, Boniface VIII. succeeded to the popedom (till 1303).

chasers of land," etc., its opening words), was passed at Westminster, to check the evil of *subinfeudation*, or the subletting of fiefs. It enacted that if a vassal alienated any of his land, the new holder should hold it, not from the vassal, but from his lord-superior. The statute greatly increased the number of small feu-holders holding directly from the Crown or from the great barons. Toward the end of the same year Queen Eleanor died, to the great grief of the King.

11. The Model Parliament: 1295.—In 1294, Edward was at war with France, with Wales, and with Scotland, and it was necessary that he should have abundant supplies. Of his own authority, he laid heavy taxes on clergy and laity alike; and as this produced much discontent, he resolved to appeal to all classes of his subjects for aid. With that view he called a Parliament in 1295, which comprised earls and barons, two knights from each shire, two burgesses from each borough, bishops and abbots, and representatives of cathedral chapters and of the parochial clergy. This was the most comprehensive and complete Parliament that had yet met, and begins a new epoch in the history of the Great Council of the nation.

12. Quarrel with the Clergy: 1297.—In spite of Edward's professed desire to rule constitutionally, and to raise money only through his Parliament, he found that means insufficient, and still indulged in a good deal of arbitrary taxation. This brought him into collision both with the clergy and with the barons. Pope Boniface VIII. had issued a bull in 1296 threatening with excommunication any who gave up the property of the Church to laymen. On that ground Archbishop Robert Winchelsey,¹ who had been appointed two years previously, refused to pay the taxes Edward demanded. The King replied that if the clergy did not contribute to the support of the government they could not have the protection of

¹ Robert Winchelsey, born at Winchelsea, 1245; distinguished academical career; Rector of University of Paris; Chancellor of University of Oxford; Archbishop of Canterbury, 1294; conflict with Edward I.,

1297-1300; accused of treason, and summoned to Rome, 1305; returned to England, 1308; opposed Gaveston, 1312; died 1313.

the law. They were obliged to yield, and sent the King large sums in the form of gifts.

13. **Quarrel with the Barons: 1297.**—Edward's exactions pressed so heavily on the barons that they resolved to hold a conference on the Marches, to determine the means of redressing their grievances. Roger Bigod, Earl of Norfolk, and Humfrey Bohun, Earl of Hereford, placed themselves at the head of the movement, and were exceedingly bold in their treatment of the King. When Edward required them to go to Gascony to defend his rights against the French King, they refused bluntly, saying that they were not bound to go abroad except as his followers. "By God, Sir Earl," said Edward, "you shall either go or hang." "By God, Sir King," replied the Earl, "I shall neither go nor hang;" and Edward was forced to give way.

14. **Confirmation of the Charters: 1297.**—By Winchelsey's advice, the clergy and the barons combined to exact from the King a confirmation of the Great Charter and the Charter of Forests (*Confirmatio Cartarum*), as the price of the supplies he demanded. To this he agreed; but he crossed the sea to Flanders, and left his son to complete the negotiations. An important article was added to the Charter, which bound the King to obtain the consent of Parliament, not only in the case of feudal revenues, but also in that of customs duties. The Charters were sent to the King at Ghent, and were confirmed by him there. Nevertheless, Edward continued occasionally to levy tallages¹ or special payments on his own authority. In 1300 he seized a large sum of money belonging to the Minorites or Franciscan friars, on the ground that the possession of wealth was against the rules of St. Francis, their founder, which enjoined poverty. Thereafter the Charters were again confirmed, and were ordered to be proclaimed four times every year. A few years later the Bishop of Worcester was fined 1,000 marks by the King for accepting the temporalities of his see from the Pope, the act being held to be contempt of the Crown.

¹ *Tallage*, properly a tax raised from towns, as *scutage* was raised from knights' fees, and *hidage* from land. Tallage is not mentioned

in the *Confirmatio*, but it is in the statute *De Tallagio non Concedendo*—a Latin abstract of the former, which is in French.

CHAPTER XVIII.—CONQUEST OF WALES AND SCOTLAND.

1. **Conquest of Wales: 1283.**—The aim of Edward's policy was to annex Wales and Scotland, and thus to unite under his sway the whole island. The Kings of England had frequently tried to subdue Wales, but without success. The difficulties of Henry III. in his prolonged conflict with his barons were greatly increased by the attitude of the Welsh princes, who generally allied themselves with the King's enemies. The fastnesses of the mountain land afforded a secure retreat to disaffected barons when it was unsafe for them to remain in England. In the civil war Llewelyn III.¹ was the ally of Leicester, and frequently ravaged the Marches. Edward resolved to get rid of this source of danger to his throne. Within a month of his coronation he went to Chester to give Llewelyn an opportunity of doing homage to him; but Llewelyn refused to meet him. Edward then summoned him to the next Parliament at Westminster; but he refused to attend, alleging fears for his personal safety. In the following year (1276) he refused again, and the Parliament declared his lands to be forfeited, and ordered a force to be raised against him.

Edward swept over the land with a large army, and Llewelyn submitted (1277). Five years later he rebelled again, along with his brother David, who had formerly been in league with the English. The death of Llewelyn, who was surprised and slain on the Wye, was a fatal blow to Welsh independence.

Abroad.—In 1281 the Teutonic Knights conquered Prussia. The Poles, hard pressed by the Borussi—a Slavonic tribe—had called in the aid of the Teutonic Knights against them in 1228. Königsberg was made the capital of Prussia (the land of the Borussi, or Prussi) in 1286. The Teutonic Knights undertook to Christianize the Borussi; but, instead, they almost extirpated them, and the country was colonized by Germans.—In 1282 the French in Sicily, to the number of 8,000, were massacred by the Sicilians. This massacre is called the *Sicilian Vespers*. The French, under Charles of Anjou (brother of Louis IX. of France), had deposed the Norman princes of Sicily in 1260, when Charles was proclaimed King of the Two Sicilies.

¹ *Llewelyn III.*, grandson of *Llewelyn II.* (See p. 135.)

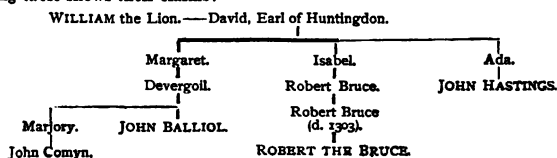
In mockery of his claims, his head was crowned with ivy, and was fixed on the gateway of the Tower of London. David III. held out for a while; but having been delivered up by his countrymen, he was hanged by order of the conqueror (1283). The *Statute of Wales*, settling the administration of the country, was passed in the following year. The title "Prince of Wales," borne by the eldest son of the English Sovereign, was first given to Edward's son of the same name, who was born at Caernarvon in 1284. He did not receive the principality, however, till 1301.

2. Disputed Succession in Scotland: 1290–1292.—Alexander III. of Scotland died in 1286, by falling over a cliff near Kinghorn, in Fife. His heir was his grand-daughter Margaret, daughter of Eric of Norway and the Princess Margaret of Scotland. "The Maid of Norway," as the young Queen was called, was then only four years of age. In 1290, Edward made with the Estates of Scotland the Treaty of Brigham, by which it was arranged that the young Queen should marry his son Edward. He hoped thus to secure the union of England and Scotland by peaceful means. An embassy was despatched to Norway to bring the Maid to England, where she was to remain under Edward's guardianship until Scotland was quiet enough to receive her safely. Unhappily she fell ill at sea, and having been landed at the Orkneys, she died there.¹ Thirteen competitors appeared for the vacant throne; but the claims of three were superior to the others. These were John Balliol,² Robert

¹ This is the received account; but its truth has been doubted by some persons, on the ground that no mention was made of the place or the time of her death, or of the fatal illness. It has been suggested that she may have been seized and sent

abroad by some of the Scottish nobles who wished to get the crown for themselves. Ten years later a young woman appeared in Norway who claimed to be Margaret the Maid; but she was seized and burned as an impostor.

² The following table shows their claims:—



Bruce, and John Hastings, who were descendants of David, a younger brother of William the Lion; Balliol being the grandson of David's eldest daughter, Bruce the son of the second, and Hastings the son of the third. All these owned estates in England, and were vassals of Edward. Edward claimed a right to interfere, on the ground that William the Lion, when the captive of Henry II., had acknowledged himself a vassal of the English Crown; and that Richard I. had no right to sell the deed of vassalage, since it was not his property, but that of all English sovereigns. This claim none of the competitors were strong enough or bold enough to resist. At Norham, in 1291, the Scottish barons, after owning Edward as suzerain of Scotland, agreed to let him decide the contest for the crown. At Berwick in the following year, after the barons and all the competitors had owned him as overlord, he gave the crown to John Balliol (1292), who was accepted by the barons, and was crowned as King John.

3. **French War: 1293.**—Soon after these events a naval war broke out with France. It sprang from a quarrel between English and French sailors off the Norman coast. The sailors of the Cinque Ports joined in the quarrel; and in a sea-fight at St. Mahé, in Brittany, the French were defeated with great slaughter. Philip of France cited Edward to answer for the conduct of his subjects; but Edward refused to appear, and renounced his fealty to France (1294).

4. **Conquest of Scotland: 1296.**—About the same time, Edward was treated in the same way by the vassal-king of Scots. Irritated by frequent summonses to London, Balliol withdrew his allegiance. In 1296 Edward invaded Scotland at the head of a large army. He besieged and took Berwick-on-Tweed, defeated Balliol at Dunbar, and seized several castles, including those of Edinburgh and Stirling. He then swept through the kingdom from south to north, finding none to resist him. Balliol abjectly submitted. After being publicly deposed, he resigned his crown into the hands of Edward, and was sent a prisoner to the Tower of London. On his departure, Edward left the Earl of Surrey as Guardian of the kingdom. The

regalia of Scotland and the ancient coronation-stone¹ were carried to England, and at the same time all Scottish records which might keep alive the spirit of the nation were destroyed.

5. **Rise and Overthrow of Wallace: 1297–1305.**—War soon broke out again. William Wallace² was its hero. At the head of a band of patriots he retook from the English nearly all the fortresses north of the Forth. He defeated the Earl of Surrey³ in the Battle of Stirling Bridge, and drove the English across the Border. Wallace then ravaged the north of En-



gland, and on his return was proclaimed Guardian of Scotland. News of these doings reached Edward in Flanders. He hastened home, marched into Scotland with a large army, and defeated Wallace at Falkirk. During the next

five years (1299–1303), Edward invaded Scotland three times, and made himself master of the country. A Parliament was held at St. Andrews in 1304 by order of Edward, at which the Scottish nobles made submission to him. John de Segrave was appointed Governor of Scotland. Wallace remained in concealment for some time; but at last he was betrayed by a

Abroad.—In 1299, Othman, or Osman, an emir of the Sultan in Asia Minor, assumed supreme power, and founded the Ottoman Empire in Bithynia (Asia Minor). From his name are derived the terms *Ottoman* and *Osmanli*, applied by common usage to the Turks.—In 1305, Clement V., a French Pope, took up his residence at Avignon, in France. This was the result of a quarrel between Pope Boniface VIII. and Philip IV. of France about the payment of taxes by the French clergy. For seventy years thereafter there were two Popes—the one at Rome, the other at Avignon.

¹ *Coronation-stone*, a rough block of red sandstone. It stood first in Dunstaffnage Castle (Argyleshire), and was thence carried to Scone. It was placed in the Abbey of Westminster, and still forms part of the coronation-chair. The regalia were restored to Scotland in the reign of Edward III.

² *William Wallace*, knight of Ellerslie,

near Paisley, Renfrewshire; born there, 1270; won Battle of Stirling Bridge, 1297; Guardian of Scotland, 1297; defeated at Falkirk, 1298; betrayed and executed, 1305.

³ *Earl of Surrey*, John, Earl of Warrenne and Surrey, grandson of the great Earl of Pembroke. His wife was Eliza, half-sister of Henry III.

false friend (Sir John Menteith), sent to London, and there hanged, beheaded, and quartered (August 1305).

6. **Rise of Robert the Bruce: 1306.**—Within six months from the death of Wallace, Robert the Bruce was crowned King of Scotland. He was Lord of Annandale, and Earl of Carrick, and was grandson of that Robert Bruce who had competed with Balliol in 1290. Balliol having been dethroned and sent to France, young Bruce was the nearest heir to the crown, and resolved to claim it. He had a rival, however, in John Comyn,¹ Lord of Badenoch, Balliol's nephew. The rivals made a secret agreement. Comyn was to receive Bruce's lands, and in return was to assist him to drive out the English and secure the crown. This bargain was betrayed to Edward, who resolved to seize Bruce, who was his vassal, and was then in London; but Bruce got a hint of his danger, and took horse to Scotland. Meeting Comyn in the Grey Friars' Church at Dumfries, Bruce is said to have taxed him with treachery. Comyn denying it, Bruce struck him down on the altar steps with his dagger; and Kirkpatrick, one of his followers, saying that he would "mak sicker," finished the deadly work with his sword. This rash deed injured Bruce's cause for a time; but it made it impossible for him to draw back, and he was crowned at Scone on March 27th, 1306.

7. **Reconquest of Scotland: 1306.**—Great was the fury of Edward when he heard that Bruce had raised the standard of revolt. Old and broken though he was, he set out for the north in person; but he pushed on the Earl of Pembroke² in advance, to attack Bruce before he could gather a large army. Near Perth, Bruce challenged the English leader to battle. Pembroke put the fight off till the morrow. The Scots, trusting to his honour, retired to the wood of Methven, undid their armour, and prepared for rest. Suddenly the English attacked them, and put them to utter rout (June 1306).

¹ John Comyn. See Genealogical Tree, p. 150.

² Earl of Pembroke, Aymer de Valence, son of William de Valence, who was son of

Isabella, widow of King John, by her second marriage, and was thus half-brother of Henry III.

8. Death of Edward: 1307.—After wandering over the country for several months and spending some time in the islands of Rathlin and Arran, Bruce reappeared in Scotland, defeated Pembroke at Loudon Hill (May 1307), and captured several strongholds. When King Edward heard of Bruce's doings, all his old prowess revived. He at once set out for Scotland with a large army, though he was so weakened by age and illness that he had to be carried in a litter. He reached Burgh-on-Sands, beyond Carlisle, and died there, after making his son promise to carry his bones at the head of the army till Scotland was subdued. But young Edward had none of his father's high spirit. He sent the King's body to Westminster Abbey, and caused to be put over his tomb the words, "Here lies the Hammer of the Scots."

9. Character of Edward I.—In personal character Edward presented a marked contrast to his father. He was an able and resolute ruler, a far-seeing and thoughtful politician, a skilful general, and a brave soldier. He fostered municipal institutions, promoted useful legislation, and encouraged commerce. Though he oppressed his subjects with the burden of taxation, he resolutely resisted the exactions of the Pope, and thus maintained the independence of his crown. His faults were those of his age and of the system he was called on to administer. He believed that the country and its wealth existed for the King, and not the King for the country. He was unscrupulous in carrying out his policy against Wales and Scotland, and he was cruel and relentless to those who thwarted him.

10. The Constitution.—The two outstanding events of this reign, as regards the Constitution, were the completion of the Constitution of Parliament in the Model Parliament of 1295, which included prelates, earls, barons, knights of the shire, burgesses, and representatives of the inferior clergy; and the clear recognition of the principle that no taxes could be collected without the consent of Parliament (1297). The important statutes of the reign have already been described.

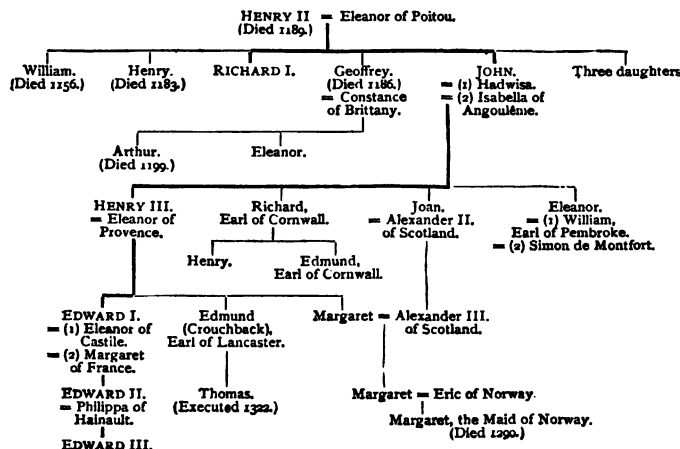
CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1274. Coronation of Edward and Queen Eleanor.
 1275. First Statute of Westminster: restored respect for the law.
 1278. Statute of Gloucester: improved the administration of justice.
 1279. Statute of Mortmain: forbade grants of land to the Church.
 1285. Second Statute of Westminster: established entail.
 1290. Third Statute of Westminster: checked subletting of fiefs.</p> | <p>1295. The Model Parliament.
 1297. Quarrels with clergy and barons.
 1297. Confirmation of the Charters.
 1298. Conquest of Wales.
 1298. French war.
 1296. Conquest of Scotland.
 1305. Execution of William Wallace.
 1306. Reconquest of Scotland by Robert the Bruce.
 1307. Death of Edward.</p> |
|---|---|

GREAT NAMES.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>Robert Burnell, "the Great Chancellor."
 Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester, Regent.
 Robert Winchelsey, Archbishop of Canterbury, leader of the clergy.</p> | <p>Alexander III., King of Scotland.
 Llewelyn III. and David II., Princes of Wales.
 William Wallace, Scottish patriot.
 Robert the Bruce, King of Scotland.</p> |
|---|---|

THE HOUSE OF ANJOU.



REIGN OF EDWARD II.¹ (ANJOU).

1307-1327.

CHAPTER XIX.—THE RULE OF FAVOURITES.

1. **Accession of Edward: 1307.**—The young King (he was twenty-three years of age) marched into Scotland as far as to Dumfries, where some of the Scottish nobles did homage to him. He then hastened back to London to enjoy the pleasures of his kingship. His companion, Piers Gaveston, a Gascon, whom Edward I. had banished, was recalled, and became the King's chosen adviser or minister, though he held no public office. He was, however, made guardian of the realm when Edward sailed to Boulogne to marry Isabella, daughter of Philip of France (December). Edward returned to England with his Queen in February 1308, and was crowned at Westminster, Gaveston carrying the crown in the procession.

2. **Piers Gaveston.**—The splendour of Gaveston excited the jealousy of the barons. The King made him Earl of Cornwall; but so unpopular was he that few persons gave him his title. When Parliament met in April, his conduct was strongly condemned, and Edward was forced to banish him from the Court; though he continued to give an honourable colour to his exile by appointing him Governor of Ireland. During his short residence there, he showed courage and resource, and succeeded in maintaining order. Some months later, the King induced Parliament to sanction the return of his "favourite."² When,

¹ *Edward II.* (of Caernarvon), eldest son of Edward I. Born 1284. Married Isabella of France. Issue, two sons and two daughters. Reigned 20 years.

² *Favourite.* This opprobrious term does

not fairly represent the position of Gaveston and Despenser. These men were not mere minions with whom the King amused himself, but were trusted advisers on whose judgment he placed reliance.

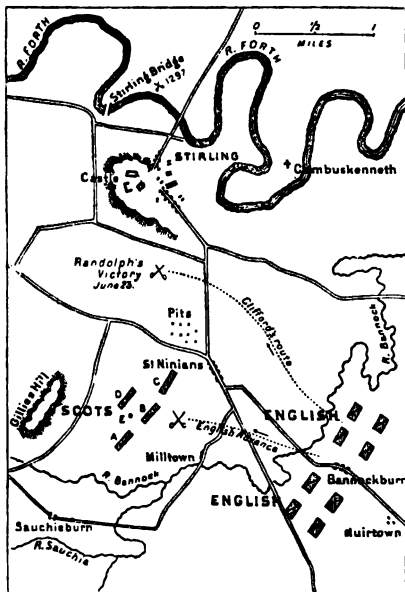
however, many of the barons absented themselves from the Parliament held at York in 1310, Gaveston fled. Some months later, Edward invaded Scotland, where Robert Bruce was active in resisting the English garrisons. There he was joined by Gaveston, with a body of mercenary troops; and when Edward returned to the south, he left Gaveston in command of Bamborough Castle (July 1311).

3. **The Lords Ordainers: 1310, 1311.**—In the meantime, the opposition of the barons had taken a wider range. A Parliament at Westminster (1310) appointed a council of twenty-one prelates and barons to draw up ordinances “for the better regulation of the King’s household.” These nobles, who were called Lords Ordainers, had as their leaders Thomas, Earl of Lancaster,¹ the King’s cousin, and Archbishop Winchelsey. They drew up “articles of reform,” the chief of which were—that Parliament should be called together at least once a year; that the King should not declare war nor leave the kingdom without the consent of the Ordainers; and that their approval should be required in the appointment of officers of the Crown and warders of the royal castles. These ordinances were adopted by Parliament in the following year, and were accepted by the King.

4. **Death of Gaveston: 1312.**—Gaveston was deprived of his estates and royal grants, and went abroad, where he occupied himself in hiring troops. Three months later, Edward again recalled his favourite, and restored to him his property. The barons could bear the King’s infatuation no longer. Archbishop Winchelsey² excommunicated the favourite, and the barons took up arms, under the Earl of Lancaster, and besieged Gaveston in Scarborough Castle. Though he was induced to surrender with a promise of life, he was executed at Blacklow Hill, near Warwick (June 1312). The King was rendered powerless by the desertion of his followers; and he was forced to make peace with the barons, and to pardon them for the execution of Gaveston.

¹ *Thomas, Earl of Lancaster*, son of Edmund Crouchback, brother of Edward I. | ² *Winchelsey*. He died in the following year, 1313.

5. Battle of Bannockburn: 1314. — Edward's retirement from Scotland in 1311 was followed by the capture of Linlithgow Castle, by the clever stratagem of a Scottish labourer, who concealed armed men in a cart of hay, with which he blocked the gateway. Then the city of Perth fell into the hands of King Robert, who also captured the castles of Roxburgh and Edinburgh. In 1313, the Scots laid siege to Stirling Castle, and in order to save it, Edward marched northward with 100,000 men.



PLAN OF THE FIELD OF BANNOCKBURN.

A Edward Bruce; B Randolph; C Douglas; D King Robert;
E Scottish Standard.

lowers, to the number of 20,000, appeared marching down a hill close by. The English, thinking this a fresh army, broke into headlong rout. Edward rode to Dunbar, and thence took

Bruce could muster scarcely 40,000 troops to oppose him. The armies met at Bannockburn, near Stirling, June 24, 1314. The English cavalry began the attack; but they soon retreated in dismay, for the ground was full of pits, filled with sharp stakes and covered with hurdles. Then poured in a deadly flight of arrows from 50,000 English bows; but the archers were attacked in flank by a body of light cavalry, and completely broken. Bruce with a rapid charge of the men of Argyle and the Isles, shook the English ranks. Just then the Scottish camp-fol-

Abroad.—In 1314, Louis X. became King of France. In 1316, he was succeeded by his brother, Philip V.

ship for England. This victory secured the independence of Scotland, and seated Bruce securely on the throne.

6. **The Scots in Ireland: 1315-1318.**—In the following year, Edward Bruce, brother of the Scottish King, landed in Ireland, and was crowned King. King Robert spent some months in Ireland, assisting his brother; from which it may be inferred that he was desirous of attacking England at a weak point, as well as of procuring a kingdom for his brother. Edward Bruce held Ulster for two years, but his death in battle at Fagher, near Dundalk, in 1318, restored the English ascendancy.

7. **Famine and Pestilence.**—The years 1315 and 1316 were darkened by the miseries of famine. Even the royal table was scantily supplied with bread. The poor fed on roots, horses, and dogs. The breweries were stopped to prevent the waste of grain. A pestilence followed the famine. The poor had no resource but robbery, and pillage and bloodshed filled the land.

8. **Ascendancy of Lancaster: 1314.**—King Edward was completely discredited by his defeat at Bannockburn. He was forced to dismiss his chief advisers, among whom were his new favourites, Henry de Beaumont and Hugh Despenser, the younger. Other ministers were nominated by the Earl of Lancaster, who now obtained the chief control of the government. When the King projected a fresh invasion of Scotland in 1316, Lancaster and his supporters compelled him to abandon it. Two years later, a council of sixteen, with Lancaster at their head, was appointed, nominally "to assist the King," but in fact to rule in his stead. The Scots had now become more daring. In 1318, after recapturing Berwick-on-Tweed, they crossed the Border and laid waste the northern counties, penetrating into Yorkshire. Edward besieged Berwick in the following year, but failed to take it. The nobles were further exasperated by the favour the King showed for Despenser, on whom he bestowed a rich wife and vast estates. The Earl of Hereford, Roger Mortimer,¹ and others ravaged the lands of Despenser, and

¹ *Roger Mortimer*, Lord of Wigmore, of the Mortimer who was the rival of De afterwards first Earl of March, grandson of Montfort. (See page 139.)

formed a league to drive him out of the country. In August 1321, they seized London, and in a Parliament there obtained the banishment of the Despensers, father and son.¹ The King retaliated by laying waste the lands of the discontented barons, and by recalling the Despensers. Edward now showed unusual energy. He marched against Lancaster, and defeated and took him prisoner at Boroughbridge, in Yorkshire (March 16, 1322). Hereford was among the slain, and Mortimer was among the prisoners. Lancaster was executed at Pontefract a few days after the battle. Many estates were forfeited, and some of these were given to Despenser.

9. **Close of Edward's Reign: 1322-1327.**—Having got rid of his principal enemies, Edward held a Parliament at York, at which most of the ordinances of 1311 were repealed; and an Act was passed giving to knights, prelates, and burgesses the same voice in sanctioning laws as the barons claimed. Edward then undertook a new invasion of Scotland, but without success. The Scots avoided a pitched battle, and allowed famine and disease to destroy their enemies. In the following year (May 1323), a truce for thirteen years was concluded between the two countries. Fresh troubles arose to harass the weak and unhappy King. He had an open quarrel with his wife Isabella. She had gone to France to attempt to arrange the affairs of Gascony, and thither her son Edward had followed her, for the purpose of doing homage to the new French King. There also she met with Mortimer, who had escaped from captivity, and with whom she fell in love (1325). In the following year, Isabella landed at Orwell, on the Suffolk coast, with a foreign army (September 1326). The King escaped into Wales.

Abroad.—In 1315, the Swiss patriots defeated the Austrians in the Battle of Morgarten, and so inaugurated successfully the war of Swiss independence. This war is said to have begun with the revolt of William Tell against the tyranny of Gesler, the Austrian viceroy, in 1306; but much of Tell's history is mythical. In 1307, a Confederation of Swiss Cantons was formed, and Swiss independence was declared.

¹ *Father and son.* Both were named Hugh. The father had fought in Scotland under Edward I., with whom he was a favourite. His father had fought on the side of the barons against Henry III., and was killed at Evesham.

The elder Despenser was captured at Bristol, and was at once hanged. Edward, after a vain attempt to reach Lundy Island—a stronghold of Despenser's—was taken prisoner, and was sent to Kenilworth in the custody of Henry, Earl of Lancaster.¹ The younger Despenser was captured with him, and was executed at Hereford. In a Parliament held at Westminster, in January 1327, Edward II. was deposed, and his son was proclaimed King in his stead; but young Edward declined to accept the crown until he had obtained his father's consent.

10. **Edward's Death.**—During the next eight months, the dethroned monarch was removed from castle to castle, until within the walls of Berkeley Keep he died by violence. Nothing more is known than that one night fearful shrieks broke the stillness; and the next morning the citizens of Bristol were called to look on the distorted face of their late King. The corpse was privately buried at Gloucester (September 21, 1327).

11. **Character of Edward II.**—Edward the Second was a weak and incompetent King. He was not personally wicked or cruel, but his failure to manage public business, and the facility with which he intrusted his affairs to favourites, earned for him the contempt of the barons, and even of his wife.

12. **The Constitution.**—~~In this reign~~ there was the first statutory recognition of the right of the Commons to sit in Parliament and take part in legislation. In the York Parliament of 1322 (which included representatives from Wales), the Ordinances of 1311 were revoked; but in their place was put on record this important declaration—"Matters to be established for the estate of our lord the King and of his heirs, and for the estate of the realm and of the people, shall be treated,

Abroad.—In 1320, gunpowder was invented in Europe by Martin Schwartz, a German monk. It is said to have been known in China and other parts of the East much earlier.

In 1322, Charles IV. succeeded his brother Philip V. in France. Queen Isabella of England was their sister, and also sister of Louis X.

In 1327, the Moors, to the number of 200,000, crossed from Africa into Spain, to assist the Moorish King of Granada against the Christians.

¹ Henry, Earl of Lancaster, brother of Thomas, who was executed in 1322.

accorded, and established in Parliaments by our lord the King, and by the consent of the prelates, earls, and barons, *and commonalty* of the realm, according as hath been hitherto accustomed."

CHIEF EVENTS.

1310. The Lords Ordainers appointed.
1314. Scottish victory at Bannockburn.
1323. Execution of Lancaster.

1325. Intrigues of Mortimer and Queen Isabella.
1327. Edward II. deposed.

GREAT NAMES.

Piers Gaveston, Earl of Cornwall, favourite minister of the King.

Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, leader of the discontented nobles; cousin of the King; one of the Lords Ordainers. Executed 1323.

Archbishop Winchelsey, one of the Lords Ordainers.

Robert I. (The Bruce) of Scotland.

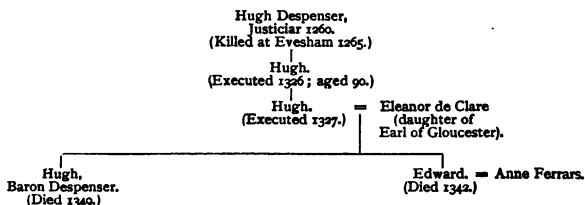
Hugh Despenser (the elder), favourite of Edward I. and Edward II. Executed 1326; aged 90.

Hugh Despenser (the younger), favourite minister of the King. Executed 1327.

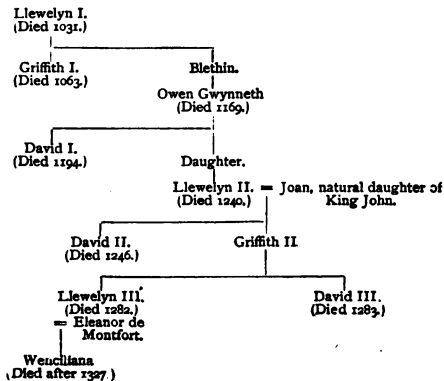
Roger Mortimer, Lord of Wigmore, leader of the Marches; opponent of Despenser.

Henry, Earl of Lancaster, brother of Thomas; opponent of Despenser.

THE DESPENSERS.



NATIVE PRINCES OF WALES.



REIGN OF EDWARD III. (ANJOU).

1327-1377.

CHAPTER XX.—ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

1. **Accession of Edward III.**¹: 1327.—The young King was crowned at Westminster on February 1, and immediately afterwards the Charters were confirmed. A Council of Regency was appointed by Parliament, the King being only fifteen years of age. Henry, Earl of Lancaster, was nominally the head of the council; but the real power was held by Isabella and Mortimer, who was created Earl of March—that is, of “the Marches.”

2. **Scottish Independence acknowledged**: 1328.—A Scottish army invaded the northern counties in August. It was difficult to follow its rapid movements, for it consisted wholly of cavalry, each man carrying a bag of oat-meal at his saddle-bow. Edward offered knighthood, with £100 a year for life, to him who should discover their route. Thomas Rokeby won the prize, and led the English King to the Wear, on the opposite bank of which lay the foe. But no battle followed. In the middle of the fifth night, the Scots retreated toward the Border. A treaty was concluded at Edinburgh in March 1328, in which Edward, by the advice of Mortimer, acknowledged Scotland to be a distinct and independent kingdom, and agreed to return the regalia. The treaty, which was confirmed by the English Parliament at Northampton in May, was cemented by the marriage of Joan, the King's sister, to the Scottish Prince, David. The Scots on their part agreed to pay the English £20,000.

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¹ **Edward III.**, eldest son of Edward II. Born 1312. Married Philippa of Hault. Issue, seven sons and five daughters. Reigned 50 years.

Robert the Bruce did not long survive the accomplishment of his life's work. He died at Cardross, June 7, 1329.

3. **Fall of Mortimer: 1330.**—The peace was very unpopular with the English barons, who spoke of it as disgraceful, and blamed Mortimer for it. Plots began to be formed against that unscrupulous adventurer, in which the Lancastrians took the lead. The Earl of Kent, uncle of the King, having been entrapped into one of these plots, was condemned by the Parliament of Winchester (March 1330), and put to death—a measure that increased the odium in which Mortimer was held. The King, too, had grown impatient of Mortimer's rule. He had married Philippa of Hainault in 1328, and was now a father. Though only eighteen years of age, he resolved to take the government into his own hands. He caused Mortimer to be seized in Nottingham Castle, and hanged at Tyburn after a hasty trial (November 1330). Queen Isabella was also arrested, and dragged out the remaining twenty-seven years of her life in her mansion of Risings, where the King paid her a formal visit once a year.

4. **Edward Balliol in Scotland: 1332–1335.**—There was one article of the Treaty of Edinburgh (1328) which the Scots had failed to carry out—the article promising restitution of confiscated estates. Edward Balliol (son of John) put himself at the head of those nobles who had been wronged in this way, raised a force, and invaded Scotland. He defeated the Scottish Regent at Dupplin, near Perth (August 1332), and was crowned at Scone. Within two months of his triumph, he was ignominiously driven out of Scotland by the partisans of David II, the young King. Edward then took up Balliol's cause, and, marching into Scotland, besieged Berwick. The Regent Douglas moved forward to save that important stronghold, but he was defeated and slain at Halidon Hill, and Berwick¹ at once surrendered (July 1333). David and his wife fled to France, and Balliol was owned as King by the Scottish Estates at Perth. He gave offence, however, to his Scottish supporters by grant-

¹ *Berwick.* From this time forth Berwick may be regarded as an English town, though not formally ceded by Scotland till 1482.

ing the eastern counties south of the Forth to the English King, and by doing homage for the remainder, and he was obliged to take refuge in Berwick (1334). The English King again went to his assistance, and together they marched through Scotland as far as to Inverness; but the Scots laid waste the country, cut off their supplies, and forced them to retire (1335).

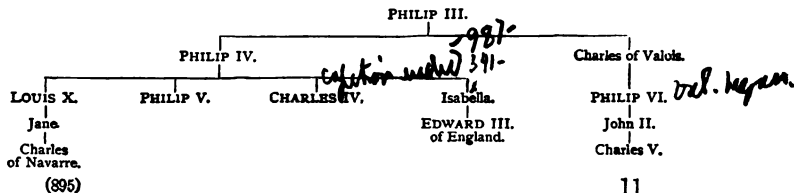


5. **Battle of Nevill's Cross: 1346.**—Edward was now engaged in his French war, and gave little heed to Scotland. There the supporters of the Bruce family steadily gained ground, and in 1341 King David and his wife returned. He was bound to support his ally the King of France by making frequent inroads into England. In one of these invasions he was defeated and taken prisoner at Nevill's Cross, near Durham. David was detained in England for eleven years, during which the Border raids were continued.

CHAPTER XXI.—WARS WITH FRANCE.

1. **Claim to the French Crown.**—To unite in his person the crowns of France and England, was the great aim of the policy of Edward III. The three sons of Philip IV. had died heirless; and Edward of England and Philip of Valois were rivals for the vacant throne.¹ Edward's mother was a daughter

¹ The following table shows the rival claims:—



of Philip IV.; Philip was the nephew of that monarch. The Salic law, which enacted that no female could inherit the French throne, stood in Edward's way, and Philip was elected (1328). Nine years later, when he was annoyed by the help which the French King gave to the Scots, Edward renewed his claim, and declared war against France (1337).

2. War Taxation.—Edward sought to strengthen his position by alliances with the neighbours of France—with Flanders, Brabant, Gueldres, and Germany; but the allies got most of the profit, in the shape of English money given in exchange for troops. To meet the expenses of the war, he laid an enormous burden of taxation on the English people. Besides the regular subsidies to which he was entitled, he had recourse to forced loans, he levied tallages on the large towns, and he received from Parliament a grant of fifty per cent. on the last crop of wool. The export duty on wool was increased; and he seized large quantities of wool and tin, for which, however, he promised to pay. Edward crossed over to Flanders in July 1338 to assert his rights on the battle-field. Two campaigns yielded no result (1338, 1339). In June 1340, a naval victory at Sluys, on the Flemish coast, was gained by the English; but they were beaten back from the walls of Tournay, and a truce was made which lasted two years. Again the war was renewed; again it failed.

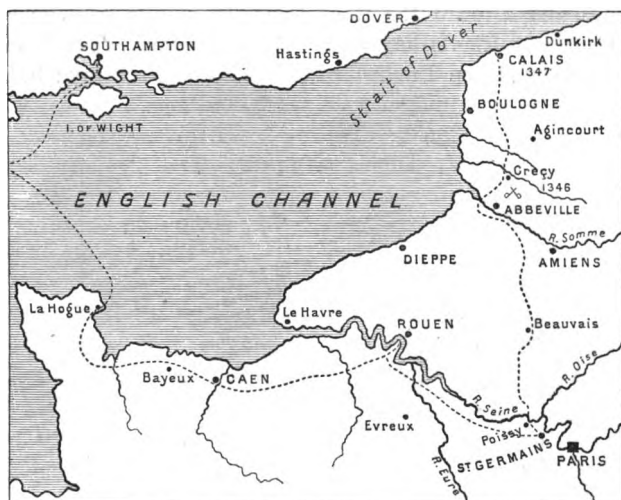
3. Invasion of France: 1346.—In the seventh year of the war, the English King resolved to strike at France in other directions. Sending the Earl of Derby with a force to Gascony, he embarked in person at Southampton with a great army, bound for the same southern province. A storm drove him to anchor on the Cornish coast for six days, during which he changed his mind as to the destination of his fleet. Normandy

Abroad.—In 1328, the Capetian dynasty in France came to an end on the death of Charles IV. It had ruled France for 341 years (since 987). The House of Valois succeeded in the person of Philip VI.

In 1335, the Council of Ten caused themselves to be declared a permanent assembly for the government of Venice. This Council originated in a secret committee to inquire into abuses in the administration. Their rule was a reign of terror, signalized by many crimes.

was now to be the direction of their course. Landing at La Hogue, he prepared for an advance upon Caen. The Prince of Wales, known as the Black Prince, from the colour of his armour, received knighthood on the sands at La Hogue, and was associated with his father in the command of the army; he had now reached the age of sixteen.

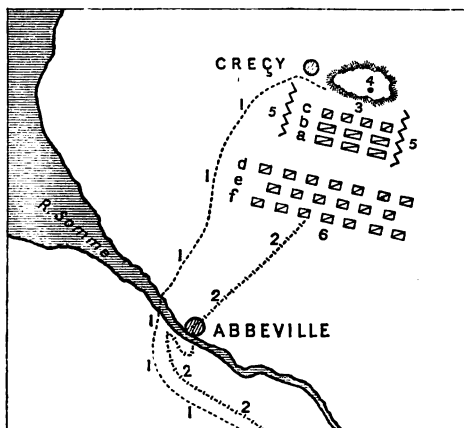
4. **The March to Crécy.**—The English army, passing from Caen to Evreux, spread its ravages almost to the suburbs of



Paris, but then turned sharply off to Beauvais—bent, it is said, on getting safely out of France. The bridges of the Somme were, however, well guarded; and it seemed as if Philip had caught the English army in a trap from which there was no escape. Almost in despair, Edward surveyed the Somme, but could find no ford and no unguarded bridge. At this crisis he heard from a prisoner of a spot below Abbeville, where the river could be passed at the ebb of the tide. Dashing in at the proper time, he led his forces over in the face of a great body of the enemy, who in vain tried to prevent the passage of the stream. Philip, who followed in hot chase, found the water too high to follow. He had to go round by Abbeville,

while the English King made his way to the forest of Crécy, where a battle must certainly be fought.

5. Battle of Crécy: 1346.—Leaving Abbeville at sunrise on Saturday, August 26th, 1346, Philip toiled with his soldiers on to Crécy, where the army of Edward, refreshed with food and sleep, awaited his approach. The English army, of 30,000 men, chiefly mercenaries, was drawn up in three lines; the Prince of Wales commanded the first, the Earl of Arundel the second, and Edward the third line. Its flanks were guarded by trenches. The falling back of his vanguard, when it came within view of the English, disordered Philip's array; but he



1. Edward's line of march.
2. Philip's line of march.
3. The English army.
 - (a) The Black Prince.
 - (b) Arundel. (c) Edward.

4. The wind-mill.
5. Trenches.
6. The French army.
 - (d) Genoese. (e) Alençon.
 - (f) Philip.

contrived hastily to throw his force of 120,000 men into three lines. The first consisted of Genoese cross-bowmen, the second was led by the Count of Alençon, and the third by Philip.

At five o'clock in the afternoon, the Genoese, armed with cross-bows, advanced to the attack in a huge mass of 15,000 men. They were tired with a heavy march of eighteen miles. The sun dazzled their eyes, and destroyed their aim. All at

once a shower of arrows began to pour on them with a force which neither shield nor armour could withstand. They fled. Vainly the cavalry of Alençon strove to stem the flight; but the Count managed to lead his horsemen through the retreating archers, and fell with fury on the foremost English battalion, led by the Prince of Wales.

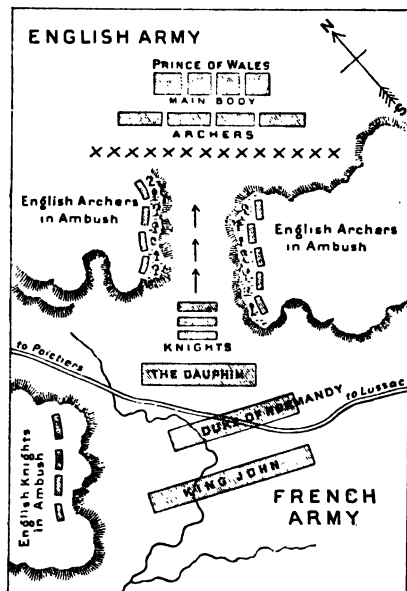
An Englishman who fought by the Prince sent for aid to the King, who stayed with the reserve by a wind-mill on a hill; but Edward refused, saying, "Let the boy win his spurs: his shall be the glory of the day." In vain the French King tried to pierce the phalanx of archers which stood between him and his routed horsemen; his bravest knights fell fast around him; the horse he rode was killed;—there was no hope but in flight. Eleven princes, twelve hundred knights, and thirty thousand common soldiers are said to have fallen in the battle, and in the carnage of the next day. John, the blind King of Bohemia, was among the slain. He was led into the battle by attendant knights, whose bridles were interlaced with his. His crest and motto—three ostrich feathers with the words *Ich dien*, "I serve"—have ever since been borne by the Princes of Wales. Engines, called "crakys of war," believed to be a rude sort of cannon, were used by the English at Crécy.

6. Capture of Calais: 1347.—The victor of Crécy at once invested Calais; and while before the town he heard of the defeat and capture of King David of Scotland at Nevill's Cross. He raised no mounds, directed no engines against the walls, but for almost twelve months he ground the garrison with the slow torture of famine, and thus forced them to open their gates. Six of the principal burgesses, barefooted, bare-headed, and with halters around their necks, went to the English camp to deliver up the keys of the city. Edward

Abroad.—In 1347, in the midst of the confusion which prevailed at Rome during the absence of the Papal Government, Rienzi, a wild enthusiast, seized the supreme power, and was made Tribune; an office which he held for seven months. He formed the design of uniting all Italy in one powerful republic. Suspected of aspiring to regal honours, he was forced to flee. He returned in 1354, and was made Senator by Pope Innocent VI.; but within four months he was fatally stabbed.

ordered them to be hanged; but on the intercession of Queen Philippa they were spared and honoured (August 4, 1347). A truce followed, which lasted for six years. For more than two centuries afterwards Calais remained in the hands of the English—a flourishing mart for the exports of England, and a convenient base for operations against France.

7. Renewal of the War: 1355.—The truce was oftener than once broken by skirmishes, especially after the death of Philip in



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF POITIERS.

1350. His son John II. succeeded to the French throne; but John's son-in-law, Charles the Bad, King of Navarre, intrigued with the English and disturbed the peace. At length, in 1355, the war was renewed, chiefly under the conduct of the Prince of Wales. The first campaign was occupied in wasting the provinces around Bordeaux; the second was signalized by the Battle of Poitiers.

8. Battle of Poitiers:¹ 1356.—The Prince had pierced too far into the centre of France, and

on his return he found an army, seven times as large as his own, and commanded by King John, between him and Bordeaux. To fight his way back was his only resource.

Abroad.—In 1350, John succeeded Philip VI. as King of France. In 1364, he was succeeded by his son, Charles V.

Scotland.—In 1353, Edward III. devastated the south of Scotland as far as to the Forth, and then withdrew.

¹ Poitiers. See Map, p. 210.

On September 19, 1356, the French attacked him in a strong position he had taken up near Poitiers. Fortunately for him the battle-ground was among vineyards, which impeded the French cavalry. As at Crecy, the English archers did great execution on the enemy. Protected by hedges, they poured into the French ranks shafts which no armour could resist. The first and second divisions of the French fell back; the King on foot led on the third, but was thrown to the ground and made prisoner with his young son Philip. Father and son were led to England by the triumphant victor.

9. **Treaty of Bretigny: 1360.**—There were thus two royal captives in England—David of Scotland and John of France. The former was ransomed in 1357, the eleventh year of his imprisonment. The latter was freed by the Treaty of Bretigny, called "The great peace," by which Edward renounced all claim to the French crown, retaining, instead of his ancestral dominions, only Poitou, Guienne, and Gascony, and the town of Calais.¹ Three millions of golden crowns were to be paid as the ransom of John; but failing to raise this sum, he returned to his captivity, and died at the Savoy, a palace in the Strand, then a suburb of London (1364).

10. **Loss of French Provinces: 1374.**—The Black Prince ruled in Gascony; but an expedition into Spain, in support of Pedro the Cruel, loaded him with debt and shattered his health. Meeting Du Guesclin, the greatest soldier of France, in battle

Abroad.—In 1356, the mode of election and the number of electors in the German Empire were settled by the Golden Bull (so called from its seal) promulgated at Nürnberg in Bavaria. The College of Electors consisted of seven members:—the Archbishops of Mainz, Treves, and Cologne; the King of Bohemia; the Count-Palatine of the Rhine; the Duke of Saxony; and the Margrave of Brandenburg.

In 1362, the Sultan penetrated into Thrace, and took Adrianople, where he fixed his capital. In 1373, he made a treaty with the Emperor of the East, by which the territories of the latter were greatly curtailed. About this time the Sultan instituted the Janissaries, a body-guard composed of young Christian slaves trained as Mohammedans.

¹ See maps, pp. 81 and 89.

at Navarrete near the Ebro (1367), he won a glorious but fruitless victory. His French subjects objected to the heavy taxation with which he oppressed them, and appealed to the King of France. Charles V. summoned the Black Prince to his court to answer an appeal from the lords of Gascony. The Prince declared war. Though his health was so broken that he had to be carried in a litter, he invaded France, and sacked Limoges with great cruelty ; but he was soon obliged by illness to return to England. From that time the English cause in France grew weak. One by one the provinces were lost, until, in 1374, there remained to Edward only the towns of Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.

CHAPTER XXII.—DOMESTIC LEGISLATION.

1. **Importance of the Reign.**—The brilliant military achievements of Edward and his brave son are apt to divert attention from the important domestic events of the reign. In respect of legislation on home affairs it is hardly less important than that of Edward I. During the half-century which it covers, there were added to the statute book some of the most famous statutes in the history of England—such as, the *Statute of Provisors*, the *Statute of Præmunire*, the *Statute of Treasons*, and the *Statute of Labourers*.

2. **Purveyance.**—Several acts were passed during the reign which aimed at restraining purveyance, or the right of the King's household, when he was travelling in the country, to demand provisions for the King and his household at a price fixed by his "purveyors ;" and the right to impress the horses and carriages of subjects for the King's service at a fixed charge. The Parliament of 1330 listened to the complaints of the people, who said that frequently their goods were taken without any payment, and it passed a statute preventing the exactions of the King's purveyors. Ten years later, another statute was passed entirely exempting the clergy from purveyance. In 1362, when the King celebrated his fiftieth birthday,

he authorized Parliament to restrain the evil, and he directed that the odious name of "purveyor" should be changed to that of "buyer."

3. The Black Death: 1349—Statute of Labourers: 1351.—A terrible sickness called the Great Pestilence, or the Black Death, which had swept over Asia and the south of Europe, broke out in France and England in 1349. The London church-yards were soon filled; the lower classes fell by hundreds in the day. According to the lowest estimate, one-half of the population perished. Many evils followed the pestilence. Nearly all the labourers who had escaped the plague left the country. Labour was so expensive that the crops were often allowed to moulder away, and the price of food rose fourfold. To check this evil, Parliament in 1351 passed a *Statute of Labourers*, compelling workmen to accept of the wages in use before the plague. It was supplemented by a second statute in 1353, forbidding labourers to quit the parish in which they worked. Thus was villenage partially restored. The plague returned in 1361 and 1369.

4. Statute of Provisors: 1351—Præmunire: 1353.—Edward's war with France naturally brought him into conflict with the Pope, who was then resident at Avignon, and was under the influence of the French King. Since the reign of John, the Pope had exercised the right to present his nominees, called "provisors," to benefices in the English Church, and he frequently presented Italians. He also claimed the first year's income. The practice was frequently complained of by the English clergy and by the King. In 1343, the barons remonstrated with the Pope on the abuse of these "provisions;" but with no effect. In 1351, Parliament passed the first *Statute of Provisors*, forbidding them altogether; but even that failed to put an end to the system. In order to enforce the Act, the first *Statute of Præmunire*¹ was passed in 1353. It forbade any one to question the decisions of the King's courts, or to carry a suit to a foreign court,—the Papal court being the one

¹ *Præmunire*. So called from the open-
ing words of the statute—"Præmunire facias A. B." (cause A. B. to be forewarned etc.).

referred to,—under penalty of fine and imprisonment. In this reign, also, the tribute of 1,000 marks a-year granted to the Pope by John was discontinued by order of Parliament.

5. Statute of Treasons: 1352.—Another important statute, passed by the Parliament of 1352, was the *Statute of Treasons*, defining the offences that constituted treason in the eye of the law. These were: the compassing of the death of the King, the Queen, or their eldest son; levying war against the King, or aiding the King's enemies; mutilation of the coin of the realm; putting to death any high official of the King when in the discharge of his duty; and questioning the legitimacy of the royal family.

6. The Staple Statute: 1353.—This statute granted to a corporation of merchants, called "the merchants of the staple," a monopoly in the export of the five staple commodities—wool, woolfels, leather, lead, and tin. It also limited the exportation to certain towns, called "staple towns," which included London, Bristol, Newcastle-on-Tyne, and York, and abroad, Calais. For any one but a "merchant of the staple" to deal in the staple goods was made a felony.

7. State of Ireland: 1357.—An important statute relating to Ireland, passed in 1357, shows how slender was the hold England then had on that island. No effort is made to conceal the facts that the authority of the English King was systematically defied, and that the reports of the King's own officers as to the state of affairs could not be relied on. The *Statute of Kilkenny*, passed in 1366, was intended to prevent the Anglo-Irish from being merged in the Irish. The former were forbidden, under heavy penalties, to use Irish laws or customs, to intermarry with the Irish, to speak the Irish tongue, or to use Irish surnames.

8. William of Wykeham.—The famous William of Wykeham,¹ Bishop of Winchester, became Edward's Chancellor in

¹ *William of Wykeham*, bishop, statesman, and architect, born in Hampshire, 1324; Surveyor of Works to the King, 1356; entered the Church, 1362; Keeper of the Privy Seal, 1364; President of the Council, 1366; Bishop of Winchester, 1366; Chancellor, 1367-71; driven from court, 1371; founded New College, Oxford, 1378; Chancellor again, 1389-91; founded St. Mary's, Winchester, 1395; died, 1404.

1367. He had for many years acted as Surveyor of Works to Edward, and in that capacity had built for him Windsor and Queenborough Castles and many other great buildings. He had also been Keeper of the Privy Seal and President of the Royal Council. After he had held the chancellorship for four years, he was charged with corruption by John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the King's fourth son, and therefore resigned the Great Seal. He was driven from court, and his temporalities were seized (1371); but it was afterwards proved that he was innocent of the charges brought against him.

9. *Factious* Lancaster's Schemes.—The attack on the Chancellor was part of a general attack on the clergy made by the majority of the barons, headed by John of Gaunt. They wished to displace the King's clerical advisers, and to intrust the government to laymen. They also wished to get possession of the vast wealth which the Church had acquired. Another party, headed by the Black Prince and William of Wykeham, and supported by the Commons, favoured the old system of clerical administrators. Beneath these party differences there was a deeper rivalry. The King's brain had given way; the Black Prince's health was shattered, and his son Richard was a boy. In these circumstances, it was perhaps natural that Lancaster should have thoughts of gaining the crown for himself, and that he should be suspected of aiming at it. He had been appointed Captain-General of the English army in France in 1373, and when the King's mind became weak and he was unable to rule in 1376, the government fell into Lancaster's hands. He ruled the King through Alice Perrers, a worthless woman who had extraordinary influence over him. Lords Latimer and Neville, members of his Council, disgusted the people with their extortions and their illegal practices.

10. The Good Parliament: 1376.—A crisis came in the Parliament of 1376—sometimes called the Good Parliament—when the Commons protested against the abuse of power by Lancaster and the barons of the King's Council. They embodied their grievances in one hundred and sixty petitions. Their demands were supported by the Black Prince; and a new

Council was appointed, from which Lancaster and his friends were excluded. Many of the "articles of reform" of the Lords Ordainers of 1311 were re-enacted. Parliament was to meet annually. Arbitrary taxation was to be discontinued. Papal encroachments were to be resisted. The knights of the shire were to be freely elected. Trade was to be protected. In connection with these reforms, Latimer, Neville, and Alice Perrers were impeached and removed from court.

11. **Death of the Black Prince: 1376.**—At this juncture the Black Prince died. The Duke of Lancaster at once resumed his supremacy in the Council, and the progress of reform was checked. Under his influence a new Parliament was called (1377), which undid all that the Good Parliament had done.

12. **John Wyclif.**—A theological aspect was given to the political contest by the writings of John Wyclif,¹ who appeared as a Church reformer before he became a Protestant. His doctrine that the State was supreme over all temporalities, whether they belonged to baron or to prelate, led him to support the barons' cause, though he had no sympathy with their rapacity. In 1377, he was summoned before the Bishop of London, to answer for heretical views in his book "Of the Kingdom of God." The Duke of Lancaster accompanied him to the court, stood by his side, and insulted the bishop. That provoked the common people, who were jealous of the power of the barons, and especially of Lancaster. For a time it deprived Wyclif of popular support. But his boldness in exposing Church abuses, and in defying the Papal authority, ere long brought the mass of the people to his side.

13. **Death of Edward III.**—The jubilee of the King's accession was celebrated in 1377 by the issue of a general pardon, from which it is said Lancaster endeavoured to exclude William of Wykeham. A few months later (June 21) the old King died at Shene (Richmond), and was buried at Westminster.

¹ *John Wyclif*, born in Yorkshire about 1324; Master of Balliol College, Oxford, 1360; Rector of Fillingham, Lincolnshire, 1361; Warden of Canterbury Hall, Oxford, 1365; expelled by Archbishop Langham, 1367; appeal to Rome rejected, 1370; presented to Lutterworth, Leicestershire, 1374; charged with heresy, 1377; denied transubstantiation, 1381; translation of the Bible, 1356-84; died, 1384.

14. **Edward's Character.**—Edward III. was an amiable and generous prince, and on the whole was a good King. His chief defect was want of foresight. He was a brilliant soldier, but not a thoughtful statesman. He gained brilliant victories; but as he did not follow them up he made no conquests, with the exception of Calais. His energy was destructive, not constructive. At the same time, he deserves credit for his submission to parliamentary restrictions, and for his firmness in resisting the encroachments of the Pope on his regal authority.

2 H 15. **The Constitution.**—The most important change made on Parliament in this reign was the permanent separation of the two Houses.¹ It is recorded that in 1332 the knights of the shire were accustomed to deliberate apart from the nobles and the bishops; and in the following year, the knights sat along with the burgesses and the citizens in a separate chamber. At the same time, the Commons House of Parliament—though not yet known by that name—acquired a large share in the work of government. Sir Peter de la Mare, who was the leader in the Good Parliament (1376), is generally considered the first Speaker of the House of Commons. The annual appointment of sheriffs on a fixed day was designed to check the oppression and exaction to which these officials resorted in the belief that they held their offices for life. In connection with charges brought against John Stratford, Archbishop of Canterbury, in 1341, it was enacted by Parliament that nobles could be tried only by their peers in Parliament. Hence arose the form of *trial by impeachment*, of which the first instance occurred in this reign—namely, in the trial of Lords Latimer and Neville in 1376. In the time of Edward III., the Chancellor became a judge in equity—that is to say, he decided cases according to the laws of nature and common-sense, when ordinary justice might miscarry owing to the partiality of local judges, or the influence of a powerful baron. These cases were at first delegated from the King's Council, and thus originated the

¹ *Two Houses.* The division is supposed to have been made, in the first instance, because of the difficulty of finding, in some of the towns in which the Parliament met, a room sufficiently large to accommodate the whole body.

Court of Chancery. Probably the last *tallage* ever levied was that collected on the royal demesne in 1332. In 1340, the custom¹ was finally abolished. It was enacted in 1362 that no subsidy should be levied on wool without the consent of Parliament. The import duties known as *tunnage* and *poundage* (2s. on each tun of wine, and 6d. per pound on other merchandise) were first granted to the King by Parliament in 1373. It soon became the ordinary form of the royal revenue.

16. **Notes of Progress.**—The title of duke was revived in England in 1337, and was first bestowed on the King's sons, the Black Prince being made Duke of Cornwall, and Lionel, Duke of Clarence. Edward also established the Order of the Garter, probably to commemorate the taking of Calais (1347). One weight and one measure for the whole kingdom were ordained by Parliament in 1340. In 1362, it was directed that the laws were to be pleaded in English—an event which marks the triumph of the native tongue over the Norman-French.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1328. Scottish Independence acknowledged.
1330. Fall and execution of Mortimer.
1333. English victory at Halidon Hill.
1346. English victory at Nevill's Cross.
1337. War declared against France.
1340. Naval victory at Sluys.
1346. English victory at Crecy.
1347. Capture of Calais.
1358. English victory at Poitiers.
1360. Treaty of Bretigny.
1374. Loss of French provinces.

1362. Purveyance restrained.
1349. The Black Death.
1351, 1353. Statutes of Labourers.
1351. Statute of Provisors.
1353. First Statute of Praemunire.
1352. Statute of Treasons.
1353. The Staple Statute.
1366. Statute of Kilkenny.
1376. The Good Parliament.
1376. Death of the Black Prince.
1377. Wyclif before the Bishop of London.
1377. Death of Edward III.

GREAT NAMES.

Henry, Earl of Lancaster, head of the Council of Regency; cousin of Edward II.
Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, Queen Isabella's paramour. Hanged 1330.
David II., King of Scotland, son of Robert I., married Jane, Edward's sister.
Edward Balliol, rival King of Scotland to David II.; son of John Balliol.
Edward, Prince of Wales, the Black Prince.

Philip VI. of France (Valois), Edward's rival for the French crown.
John, King of Bohemia, captured at Crecy.
William of Wykeham, Chancellor; great architect; Bishop of Winchester.
John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, Edward's fourth son.
Sir Peter de la Mare, first Speaker of the House of Commons.

¹ The custom—that is, *tallage*, a tax on towns. (See p. 148, footnote.)

REIGN OF RICHARD II.¹ (ANJOU).

1377-1399.

CHAPTER XXIII.—THE REVOLT OF THE COMMONS.

1. **Accession of Richard II.:** 1377.—Edward was at once succeeded peaceably by his grandson Richard, son of the Black Prince, a boy in his eleventh year. The young King was crowned at Westminster in July. Parliament met in October, and Sir Peter de la Mare, who had been imprisoned by Lancaster, was again chosen Speaker. Nine persons—bishops, earls, and knights—were appointed as a Council of Regency, from which the King's uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster and Gloucester, were excluded. In a short time, however, Lancaster was placed at the head of a Council of Lords for the defence of the kingdom, and became, in fact, the chief minister. The House of Commons resumed its work of controlling the finances, claiming the right to demand an account of how the taxes were spent. The French ravaged the south coast, and burned several towns. The Scots plundered the Border. An English fleet was repulsed by the Spaniards. The treasury was empty, and fresh taxation became necessary.

2. **The Poll-Tax:** 1379-80.—A poll-tax had been imposed near the close of the last reign, and that was the form of raising money now adopted. It was a graduated tax, ranging at first

Abroad.—In 1380, Charles VI. succeeded his father Charles V. in France.

¹ *Richard II.*, son of the Black Prince, Married (1) Anne of Bohemia; (2) Isabella and grandson of Edward III. Born 1366. of France. No issue. Reigned 22 years.

(1379) from 4d. to £6, 13s. 4d. per head, according to the rank of the subject; and in the following year from 12d. to £1 for every person above fifteen. The inequality of the tax, and the harshness with which it was collected, excited great discontent. To understand the situation, it must be remembered that only the upper classes of the Commons were as yet represented in Parliament. The lower orders, who formed the mass of the population, were unrepresented. They had many grievances. The peasants complained of the Statutes of Labourers passed in the last reign. The poor citizens complained of the oppression of the merchant guilds. But they had no regular means of obtaining redress. All that they could do was to meet together in the towns and villages and denounce their oppressors.

3. Risings in Essex and Kent: 1381.—In the beginning of 1381, the collectors of the poll-tax were openly resisted in Essex and Kent. At Dartford, one of them was killed by a workman named Wat Tyler. That spark set the country in a blaze. The mobs were organized into bands and regiments, which committed serious ravages, under such leaders as Wat Tyler and Jack Straw.¹ The revolt spread westward to Cornwall, and northward to Yorkshire. The claims of the lower orders were encouraged by the preaching of John Ball, a priest, who spread abroad the doctrine that all men were born equal, and had equal rights. He took as his text,—

“ When Adam delved and Evë span,
Who was then the gentleman? ”

4. The Rebels in London.—What began as a rising against an unjust tax had now assumed the form of a wide-spread rebellion against the oppression of landlords and partial laws. The rebels resolved to march to London and appeal to the King. Richard met the men of Essex at Mile End (June 14th), and granted their demands, which were:—1. That villenage should be abolished; 2. That the rent of good land should be fourpence an acre; 3. That all should have liberty to buy and sell in fairs or markets; 4. That all past offences should be

¹ *Wat Tyler, Jack Straw.* These were occupations of the men. Others called assumed names taken probably from the themselves Jack Miller, Jack Carter, etc.

pardoned. The rebels seemed to be satisfied, and returned to their homes.

5. **Death of Tyler.**—In the meantime, the men of Kent, to the number of 20,000, with Wat Tyler as their leader, had assembled at Blackheath. In their ranks there were many who were above the peasant class, and whose aim was to give a political character to the movement. On June 13th they made a raid on London, burned many houses, including that of the Duke of Lancaster, pillaged many others, and put foreign merchants to death. On the 14th, they murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury, who was also Chancellor, and the royal treasurer. Next day, Richard by agreement met them in conference at Smithfield. When, in the course of the interview, Tyler happened to lay his hand on his dagger, he was cut down by Walworth, the Lord Mayor, and as he lay on the ground he was killed by one of the King's esquires. Richard, regardless of the frowns and bended bows of the rebels, galloped up to them, crying, "Tyler was a traitor: I myself will be your leader!" This boldness had a great effect on the crowd: their numbers melted away, and the rebellion was soon over. But the promises of the King being beyond his powers, were recalled by the Council of Regency, and their revocation was afterwards confirmed by Parliament. Judges were sent on circuit to try the offenders, and fifteen hundred persons, including the famous John Ball, were executed. Pardon was granted to the remaining insurgents in 1382.

6. **Last Days of Wyclif.**—Meantime John Wyclif, in the retirement of his study at Oxford, had been working out the problem of Church reform which he had taken in hand. In connection with this, he was led to examine the doctrines of the Church, and in 1381 he made a public declaration against Transubstantiation. His writings were condemned by a council of prelates, and he and all his followers were ordered to quit Oxford. Wyclif retired to Lutterworth in Leicestershire, where he translated the Bible into English from the Latin Vulgate. By this and his other writings he sowed the first seeds of the Reformation in England. He died in 1384. His

disciples (who were called Lollards, or singers) presented a *Remonstrance* to the House of Commons in 1395, against the wealth and worldliness of the clergy.

7. **Geoffrey Chaucer.**—Another writer who was in full sympathy with the anti-clerical party, and who aided the reform movement by his writings, was Geoffrey Chaucer, the first great English poet. He was probably born in 1340, and was from an early age connected with the royal family, especially with John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, who was of his own age, and with whom he formed a life-long friendship. His fortunes rose and fell with those of his patron. While Lancaster was in power, Chaucer prospered. When Gloucester assumed the government (1386), Chaucer lost all his offices, and was reduced to poverty. When Richard displaced Gloucester, and Lancaster returned from Spain, Chaucer's fortunes revived. In the Prologue to his great work, "The Canterbury Tales" (completed 1390), we have a portrait gallery of representative men and women of the time; and it is noteworthy that while he treats the worldly Monk, the greedy Friar, and the cheating Pardoner with ridicule and scorn, he praises the faithfulness and self-sacrifice of the poor Parson, who is the ploughman's brother. Chaucer died in 1400, one year after Lancaster.

CHAPTER XXIV.—THE LANCASTRIAN REVOLUTION.

1. **France and Scotland.**—The war with France, which had been the chief cause of the new taxation, was continued, but led to no good result. The French drove the English out of Flanders, which was the chief market for English wool. In 1385, the Scots, aided by French troops and money, attempted an invasion of England, but met with little success. Richard, in return, penetrated Scotland as far as to Aberdeen, committing great havoc in Edinburgh, Dunfermline, Perth, and Dundee. But in 1388 the Battle of Otterburn (near Wooler),

between the Earl of Douglas¹ and Henry Percy—surnamed Hotspur, from his fiery temper—ended in the defeat of the English, though Douglas was slain. Percy was made prisoner, but his captivity did not last long. This battle formed the foundation of the old Border ballad of “Chevy Chase.”

2. Gloucester in Power.—A change of government took place in 1386. In that year the Duke of Lancaster went to Spain to prosecute his wife’s claim to the crown of Castile. This left the field at home open to the Duke of Gloucester, who resolved to get all power into his own hands. Michael de la Pole, the Chancellor, whom Richard had created Earl of Suffolk, was charged in the House of Commons with taking bribes, with obtaining grants from the King, and with committing frauds on the revenue. His impeachment was voted; he was deprived of his offices and gains, and was put into the custody of Gloucester. A new Council of Regency was formed, consisting of eleven persons, with Gloucester at their head. Finding himself powerless, the King with the help of his favourite, De Vere, Earl of Oxford, recently created Duke of Ireland, endeavoured to extinguish the new council. Gloucester and his friends (the “Lords Appellant”²) reached London before the King, seized the Tower, and imprisoned as many of their opponents as they could lay hands on. Ireland, who escaped, raised some troops and tried to strike a blow for the King in Oxfordshire; but he was defeated, and fled to the Continent, whither the Earl of Suffolk had already preceded him, and where both of them died.

3. Richard seizes the Government: 1389.—The Parliament of 1388, called by its admirers the Wonderful Parliament, and by its enemies the Merciless, was completely under Gloucester’s control; and at his instance it condemned the King’s councillors, and put several of them to death. In the following

¹ Douglas, James, second Earl of Douglas. At his death the earldom passed to his father’s cousin, Archibald, son of “the Good” Sir James.

² *Lords Appellant*. So called because they “appealed” or impeached the King’s

advisers—the Archbishop of York, the Duke of Ireland, the Earl of Suffolk, and others. The Lords Appellant were the Duke of Gloucester and the Earls of Derby, Arundel, Warwick, and Nottingham.

year, however, Richard shook himself free from the trammels of guardianship, and took the government into his own hands. Lancaster returned in the same year, and effected a reconciliation between Gloucester and the King. Richard ruled for some time with vigour and justice. In 1394, he visited Ireland, and received the fealty of the native princes; but he was hastily recalled by the clergy, on whom the Lollards were making a renewed attack. In 1396, he married Isabella, daughter of the King of France, and made a truce of twenty-five years with that power.

4. Fall of Gloucester: 1397.—Another crisis, and a greater one, came in 1397. It was brought on by the intrigues of Gloucester to recover his ascendancy. Suddenly Richard arrested Gloucester and his chief adherents, and summoned a Parliament for their trial. Gloucester was sent to Calais, where he was mysteriously murdered. Thomas Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, was banished. His brother, the Earl of Arundel, was beheaded. Others were imprisoned. The Commission of Regency of 1386 was declared illegal, and all the acts of the Wonderful Parliament were repealed. Liberal supplies were granted to the King, who ruled as an absolute monarch till the end of his reign.

5. General Discontent.—Richard was the victim of his own success. The good points in his government told against him, and offended different classes of his subjects. The lower orders were alienated by his failure to fulfil the promises made to them at the beginning of his reign; the higher orders, by his opposition to the Statutes of Labourers; the Church, by his refusal to persecute the Lollards. The wide-spread discontent

Abroad.—In 1388, the Swiss defeated the Austrians at Näfels, and peace was concluded in 1389, which secured the independence of Switzerland.

Scotland.—In 1390, John succeeded his father, Robert II., and took the title "Robert III."

Abroad.—In 1395, Tamerlane (Timūr the Tartar), a Mongolian, invaded Russia, but retired without making any permanent conquest.

In 1397, Queen Margaret of Denmark and Norway united these countries with Sweden by her marriage with Eric, the Swedish King. Denmark and Norway had been united in 1389.

needed but an occasion to break out, and that was soon found.

6. Deposition of Richard: 1399.—A quarrel having arisen between the Duke of Norfolk and the Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt, the King banished both—Norfolk for life, Hereford for ten years. Norfolk never returned, but Hereford reappeared after Lancaster's death in 1399, and demanded the estates of his father, which Richard had seized. He landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire with only twenty followers; but he was speedily joined by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, and when he reached London 60,000 men marched under his banner. Richard, who was in Ireland, was delayed for three weeks by bad weather; and, when he landed in Wales, he found that the crown had passed away from him. At Flint he became the prisoner of Hereford (now Duke of Lancaster), and was led with mock respect to London. The Parliament met in Westminster Hall on September 30, 1399, and after the accusation of Richard in thirty-five articles had been read, he was solemnly deposed and sent into secret captivity. The Duke of Lancaster then claimed the throne by right of descent, and was declared the lawful King, the Archbishops of Canterbury and York placing him on the throne.

7. Character of Richard II.—In character, Richard closely resembled Edward II., whose fate he shared. Both were weak rather than wicked men; and both owed their fall in large measure to the influence which they allowed favourites to obtain over them. Richard on one or two occasions gave proofs of courage and resolution which were wholly unlike his general character. Personally he was generous and kindly, and his own attendants and followers, as well as his wives, were devoted to him.

8. The Constitution.—Several important statutes belong to this reign. In 1390, Parliament passed a new *Statute of Provisors*, which re-enacted the Act of 1351. (See page 173.) In the following year it re-enacted the *Statute of Mortmain* of 1279 (see page 145), and by that means the fraudulent transference of lands to the Church was stopped. Most im-

portant of all was the great *Statute of Præmunire*, passed in 1393, which prevented suits from being referred to foreign courts. The new statute differed from that of 1353 in mentioning the Court of Rome by name. After Richard became an absolute King, he infringed the rights of Parliament. But the House of Commons was indifferent to these rights; for in 1398, it granted the King customs duties for life; and it delegated its authority to a committee of eighteen of its own members. By the deposition of Richard and the proclamation of Henry IV., Parliament exercised again its power to change the succession to the throne.

9. **Notes of Progress.**—In the reign of Richard II., Windsor Castle was completed, the workmen being obliged, by the odious system of purveyance, to give their services for nothing. Peers were now first created by letters-patent; and for the first time, at the King's coronation, a knight cast down his glove, daring any one to dispute the monarch's claim. This chivalrous ceremony, which then had meaning, still lingers, and is duly performed by the royal champion.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1381. Tyler's rebellion.
 1381. Wyclif expelled from Oxford.
 1386. Gloucester head of the Regency.
 1388. Battle of Otterburn.
 1398. The Wonderful Parliament.

1389. Richard's government in person.
 1390. Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales."
 1397. Fall of Gloucester.
 1399. Deposition of Richard.

GREAT NAMES.

John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the King's uncle.
 Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester, the King's uncle.
 Wat Tyler, rebel leader.
 Walworth, Lord Mayor of London.
 Thomas Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury.
 John Wyclif, Reformer; translator of the Bible from the Latin Vulgate.

Geoffrey Chaucer, poet; author of "Canterbury Tales."
 De Vere, Earl of Oxford and Duke of Ireland; the King's favourite.
 Henry, Duke of Hereford, son of Lancaster and afterwards Henry IV.
 Thomas, Duke of Norfolk, banished by Richard.
 William Langland, poet; author of "Vision of Piers Plowman."

CHAPTER XXV.—THE STATE OF SOCIETY.

TIME OF THE ANGEVINS.

1. **The People.**—In the time of the Angevins, the higher classes had become more refined, and lived in greater luxury ; and men of the merchant class lived in greater comfort. As we have seen, the five great staple commodities of the country were wool, woolfels, leather, lead, and tin. The leading merchants dealt in wool. Even the kings did not disdain to trade in fleeces. Edward III. was called in derision by his French rival, “The royal wool-merchant.” The army was composed of four classes :—1. The *men-at-arms*, comprising knights, esquires, and their followers. These were heavy cavalry. 2. The *troopers*, who were light cavalry, mounted on inferior horses ; they were engaged chiefly in the Scottish wars. 3. The *archers*, whose skill gained some of the greatest victories of the period. Their bows were of two kinds—long-bows to discharge shafts, and cross-bows for bolts or quarrels (these were arrows with solid square heads made of iron). 4. The *footmen*, armed with spears, and wearing skull-caps, quilted coats, and iron gloves.

2. **Wages—Employments.**—Some idea of the value of money in those days may be gathered from the rate of wages. Hay-makers got a penny a-day ; labourers, three-halfpence ; carpenters, twopence ; and masons, threepence. No one was allowed to work out of his own parish, except the men of Staffordshire, Derbyshire, Lancashire, and those from the marches of Scotland and Wales, who helped to reap the harvest. Agriculture was a favourite employment of the clergy : we read of even Becket and his monks tossing hay, and binding sheaves in the fields. Many of the improvements of the time in gardening were due to the monks.

3. **Dress.**—The dress of Edward the Third’s Court may be taken as a specimen of the fashion prevailing during the period. The full-dress consisted of a coat of different colours, with deep sleeves ; trousers reaching scarcely to the knees ; stockings of different colours ; and long-toed shoes. The beard was long

and curled; the hair was tied in a tail behind; while a close hood of silk, embroidered with strange figures of animals and buttoned under the chin, enclosed the head. The most striking part of the ladies' dress was a towering head-dress like a mitre, some two feet high, from which floated a whole rainbow of gay ribbons. Their trains were long; their tunics were of many colours.

4. **Sports.**—The tournament was still the first of sports: but there were also tilting at the ring, when knights strove at full horse-speed to carry off on the point of a levelled lance a suspended ring; and tilting at a wooden figure called a Quintain, which, turning on a pivot, bore with outstretched arm a wooden sword. He who struck fairly in the centre was untouched; but if the lance struck too much on one side, the tilter received a sound blow from the wooden sword as he rode past. Horse-racing and bull-baiting were sports in which high and low took equal interest: but the great pastime of the lower classes was archery, which they were bound by royal proclamation to practise on Sundays and holidays after Divine service.

5. **Learning.**—In an age when "might was the only right," and the qualities most prized were personal strength and skill in arms, it is not strange that education, according to our notion of it, was neglected. War and woodcraft were all that the great cared to know. They read little and wrote less. The clergy alone were learned; but their knowledge was confined within a narrow circle. They were the lawyers, the physicians, and the teachers of the day. Every monastery had its *scriptorium*, or writing-room, where manuscripts, of which every page was bordered with a beautiful design in gold and bright colours, were copied by the patient monks. The church architecture belonging to this period has been called the Decorated Gothic. Pointed arches and profuse ornament are the distinctive features of the style, of which Melrose Abbey (begun 1322) and Exeter Cathedral (1369) may be cited as specimens.

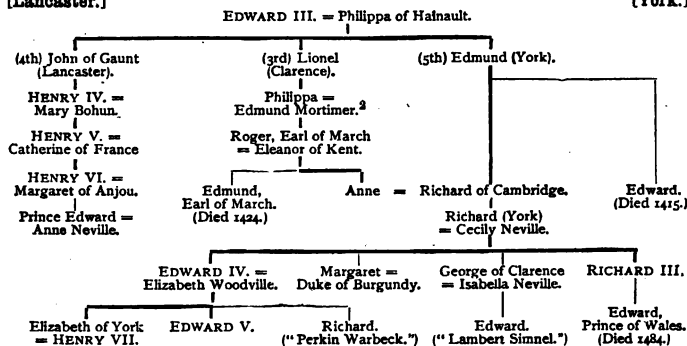
6. **Language and Literature.**—This period witnessed the revival of English as the national speech. That tongue, modified by the changes of the Conquest, began gradually to approach

to its present form. Two events already referred to are specially memorable—the English Proclamation of Henry III. (1258); and the statute of 1362, ordering English to be used in the law courts. In 1385, English was restored in the schools.¹ As the language grows with the nation, with the nation also it gradually changes. Their history is inseparable. It was not until the time of Edward III. that England began to recover from the shock of the Norman Conquest. Then the English mind awoke from the lethargy of bondage, and our modern literature had its birth. English prose and English poetry alike sprang to life. It is a remarkable fact that the earliest English authors recognized as classics were reformers—both social and religious. William Langland in *Piers Plowman* (1362) gave voice to the aspirations of good men after a better and purer life than that of the official clergy. John Wyclif preached and wrote with the view of reforming the life of the clergy before he sought to reform the doctrine of the Church. Chaucer, too, as we have seen, made the clergy the objects of his satire.

LANCASTER AND YORK.

[Lancaster.]

[York.]

¹ See "Higher Grade English," pp. 38, 41.² See Genealogical Tree, p. 197.

REIGN OF HENRY IV.¹ (LANCASTER).

1399-1413.

CHAPTER XXVI.—DIFFICULTIES OF A USURPER.

1. **Henry's first Acts.**—Henry's first care was to reward his own supporters, and to conciliate opponents; his second was to make his crown secure. He created his eldest son Prince of Wales; he appointed his brother-in-law, the Earl of Westmoreland, Earl Marshal, and the Earl of Northumberland, Constable. He issued a general pardon to his enemies, from which, however, the murderers of the Duke of Gloucester were excluded. When Parliament met, all the acts of the late reign after Gloucester's assumption of power in 1386 were annulled.

2. **Plot of the Earls: 1400.**—Henry was troubled by the dread of rivals which usually besets usurpers. He detained in close custody during the whole reign Edmund Mortimer, the young Earl of March,² who, being descended from an elder brother of John of Gaunt, was, according to the strict law of inheritance, King by right. He was disturbed by a common report that Richard had escaped and was in Scotland, and he knew that his own title was defective. The Kings of France and Scotland declined to recognize him. On grounds like these, plots were formed against him; but none of them succeeded. A very serious plot to release and restore Richard was organized by

¹ *Henry IV.*, grandson of Henry III., and son of John of Gaunt. Born 1366. Married (1) Mary of Hereford, (2) Jane of Navarre. Issue, four sons and two daughters. Reigned 14 years

² *Earl of March.* His grandfather,

Edmund Mortimer, who married Philippa, heiress of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, was descended from Roger, first Earl of March, the paramour of Queen Isabella, who was executed in 1330. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 189.)

the Earls of Huntingdon, Salisbury, and Kent, in the beginning of 1400. The earls were cut down by the townsfolk of Cirencester. Immediately afterwards many of the partisans of the late King were executed; and Henry, alleging that Richard had starved himself to death at Pontefract, caused his body to be exhibited at St. Paul's (March 1400). Many persons doubted whether the body was really that of Richard.¹

3. **Persecution of Heretics: 1401.**—Most of Henry's troubles sprang from the nobles, who did not gain as much as they expected from the change of dynasty. To strengthen himself against them, he sought the support of the Commons and of the Church. He secured the friendship of the bishops and the clergy by consenting to the adoption of severe measures against the Lollards. In 1401, Parliament passed the *Statute for the Burning of Heretics (De Heretico Comburendo)*, the first persecuting law on the English Statute-book. It gave power to bishops to imprison heretics, and to hand over to the civil power those who refused to recant, in order that they might be burned. The first victim of this persecution was the Rev. William Sawtré, chaplain of St. Oswith's in London. Condemned for preaching heresy after the tenets of the Lollards, this priest, the first English martyr on the Protestant side, was unfrocked and burned at the stake in Smithfield (February 1401).

4. **State of Ireland.**—Ireland was still in a disturbed state. It will be remembered that King Richard was in Ireland, attempting to deal with the disorders, when Henry landed at Ravenspur. After the accession of the latter, the Scots allied

Abroad.—In 1399, the Mongol Tartars, under Tamerlane, took Delhi, and overran Hindustan, till 1402. This laid the foundation of the Mogul (i.e., Mongol) dynasty in India, which began with Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, in 1525, and continued, with Delhi as its capital, till 1803, when it became tributary to Great Britain.

¹ According to the accounts of the Scottish Chamberlain, "King Richard of England" was alive in Scotland as late as 1417, and this is confirmed by documents in the English Record Office. The opposing view is that a counterfeit Richard was kept in Scotland to intimidate King Henry.

themselves with the Irish of the north, and the war between the English and the natives was reopened. In 1401, Thomas of Lancaster (afterwards Duke of Clarence), the King's second son, assumed the government, and made vigorous efforts to maintain the English supremacy; but with only partial success.

5. Border Battles: 1401, 1402.—The King of Scots having declared the truce with England to have been terminated by the deposition of Richard, the Border raids began again. Determined to quell the turbulent borderers, Henry marched northward with a large army in 1401, burned Leith, the port of Edinburgh, and revived the claim to the lordship of Scotland. Failure of supplies forced him to return to the south without accomplishing more. Next year, a band of Scottish Border lords, led by Sir Thomas Hepburn of Hailes, with 400 troopers splendidly equipped, broke into England and ravaged and plundered the northern counties. On their return, laden with booty, they were intercepted at Nesbit Moor (in the Merse) by the Earl of Northumberland and his son Sir Henry Percy, the famous Hotspur. A long and desperate battle ensued, in which the Scots were defeated, with the loss of their leader and the flower of his troops. The battle-field is known to this day as "Slaughter Hill." To retaliate on the Percies, the Earl of Douglas led an army into England in July of the same year, and kept his men living on the fat of the land for several weeks. On their homeward march they were overtaken and defeated by Hotspur at Homildon Hill, near Wooler, and Douglas¹ was made prisoner (1402).

6. Owen Glendower.—Throughout the entire reign a Welshman named Owen Glyndwr, or Glendower, maintained his independence among the hills. He had been educated in the law-schools of London, and had served as an esquire at the court of Richard II.; but on his return to Wales, he found that a part of his estate had been seized by Lord Grey of Ruthyn, a near friend of the King, and one of the lords of the Marches; and his sense of wrong drove him to rebel. Claiming

¹ Douglas. Archibald, fourth Earl of James. His wife Margaret was a daughter Douglas, grandson of "the Good" Sir of Robert III.

descent on the mother's side from Llewelyn III., he assumed the title of Prince of Wales, and was crowned in 1402. As he had a reputation for learning and wisdom as well as for courage, the Welsh people joined his standard in thousands. He captured the principal castles in Wales, ravaged the Marches, and drove back on three occasions English armies led by Henry. He was practically master of Wales till his death in 1415.

7. Revolt of the Percies: 1403.—Finding among his prisoners Sir Edmund Mortimer, uncle of the Earl of March, Glendower was led into an alliance with the Mortimer faction in England and with the Percies of Northumberland, who aimed at the dethronement of Henry. The Percies were Henry's most troublesome enemies, though they had helped to place him on the throne. It is uncertain why they drew the sword against him. Perhaps one cause may be found in his refusal to ransom from the Welsh Sir Edmund Mortimer, who was Percy's brother-in-law; and another in Percy's refusal to deliver up to Henry the Earl of Douglas, who was his prisoner. Percy took the field, while Douglas fought under his banner as his ally. He marched to join Glendower, who was then besieging Caermarthen; but he did not reach him, as he was intercepted near Shrewsbury by the army of the King, to whose support against the Percies the southern lords had rallied. The battle was long and bloody, but was decided in favour of Henry by the death of Percy, while Douglas was again made prisoner (July 1403). Northumberland, who had been detained from the field by illness, submitted at once, and was pardoned.

8. The Commons and the Church: 1404.—When Henry asked Parliament for supplies to meet the expense of these wars, the Commons proposed to confiscate the temporalities of the Church and apply them in maintaining an army. In great alarm and indignation, the clergy appealed to Henry through Archbishop Arundel, who had been recalled and restored, and the daring proposal was set aside. It was renewed in 1410, but Henry refused to listen to it. These were not the only indications of aggressiveness on the part of the Commons. In 1404, Henry was obliged, on their request, to remove four of his

ministers, and to name his Council in Parliament—a step which he had to repeat three years later.

9. **Henry and France.**—Henry's power was also threatened on the side of France. Charles VI. was the father of Queen Isabella, and could not be expected to recognize the man who had dethroned his son-in-law. A dispute arose about the jewels and the dowry of Isabella; which, according to agreement, should have been returned on her husband's death. Henry met the demand by a counter-claim for the ransom of John, who had been captured at Poitiers. For some time there was no open declaration of war; but the French nobles were allowed to ravage the English coasts in their privateers; and Charles made a treaty with Owen Glendower, and sent him help.

10. **Henry's Throne established: 1408.**—A series of events now occurred which weakened Henry's enemies and enabled him to establish his throne. James, the heir of King Robert of Scotland, fell into his hands. The Scottish nobles blamed the Duke of Albany, Robert's brother, for the death of the Duke of Rothesay, the King's eldest son (1401). To save James, the second son, from a similar fate, they advised the King to send him to France to be educated. The ship in which he sailed was captured by an English vessel off Flamborough Head, and the Prince was sent to Windsor as a prisoner (1405). He was well educated by Henry; and on his release, nineteen years later, he became Scotland's Poet-King. Meantime, his captivity removed all chance of disturbance from Scotland. In the same year the Earl of Nottingham, and Scrope, Archbishop of York, were beheaded for having conspired against Henry.

In France there was a struggle for power between Louis, Duke of Orleans, and John, Duke of Burgundy,¹ Charles VI. having become imbecile. Orleans was Henry's foe, having

Scotland.—In 1406, King Robert III. died, and was succeeded by James I., then a prisoner in England.

¹ *Orleans and Burgundy.* Louis, Duke of Orleans, was brother of Charles VI. John, Duke of Burgundy (John the Fear-
less), was their cousin, being son of Philip the Bold. (See Genealogical Table, p. 199.)

plundered Guienne and encouraged the attacks on England; while his son had married Isabella, the widow of King Richard. In 1407, the Duke of Orleans was murdered in the streets of Paris by order of Burgundy, and civil war ensued, Bernard, Count of Armagnac, taking the leadership of the Orleans party. In these circumstances, Henry had no reason to fear a French invasion.

In 1408, the Earl of Northumberland, who had led a wandering life for several years in Scotland and Wales, revolted again, and was slain in a skirmish at Bramham Moor, in Yorkshire. On the same field Lord Bardolf, Northumberland's ally, was mortally wounded. These were the last of the conspirators who had been plotting for years against Henry. Thereafter the King sat securely on the throne.

11. **Henry and his Son.**—Henry's closing years were disturbed by a quarrel with his son Henry, Prince of Wales, who early showed great ability, and much interest in public affairs, and gave promise of becoming a strong ruler, as well as a brave and skilful soldier. The causes of the difference between them were partly personal and partly political. The King is said to have been grieved by the frivolous and even vicious conduct of the Prince, who spent much time in the company of wild and dissipated boon companions. The stories told of the Prince's conduct—of his threatening Chief-Justice Gascoigne with his sword, and of his robbing his own servants—are probably exaggerated; but they had a foundation in fact, for it is known that after he took up his residence in London in 1410, he fell deeply into debt. He differed from his father on the question of his vacillating policy in France, as well as regarding home affairs, and in 1411 his name was removed from the list of the Privy Council. He is credited with having longed for

Scotland.—In 1411, the Earl of Mar defeated Donald, Lord of the Isles, in the Battle of Harlaw (Aberdeenshire). Donald claimed the earldom of Ross. The victory established the supremacy of the Anglo-Scots over the Celts of Scotland.

In 1411, the University of St. Andrews (the first in Scotland) was founded by Wardlaw, Bishop of the diocese.

the crown, and even with having advised his father to resign it to him.

12. **Death and Character of Henry IV.:** 1413.—Fits of epilepsy wore out the strength of Henry at the comparatively early age of forty-seven. The last seized him in the chapel of St. Edmund at Westminster. He died a few days later, and was buried at Canterbury. Of Henry's character not much that is favourable can be said. 1. He ruled by inspiring fear rather than affection in his people. 2. His private life was vicious, and his public life was grounded in self-interest. 3. He was a scheming time-server rather than a statesman, as was shown in his treatment of the Church and of the Commons, and in his intriguing with the opposing factions in France. 4. Yet he was able and resolute, and he succeeded, in spite of great difficulties, in establishing the throne which he had usurped.

13. **The Constitution.**—The power of the Commons increased in Henry's reign, chiefly because the insecurity of his position made him dependent on Parliament. The Commons exercised an actual control over the supplies, and insisted on a proper audit of the accounts of the money they voted. They made new regulations for elections to Parliament, with the view of punishing sheriffs who made false returns. Most important of all, they forced the King (1407) to give to them the sole right of originating grants of money. They obtained in 1408 the King's assent to a petition of thirty-nine articles demanding the removal of evil counsellors, the application of the ordinary revenue to the expenses of the King's household, and the regulation of purveyance. Other privileges of Parliament granted in the same deed were—1. Freedom of debate; 2. Freedom from arrest; 3. The right to decide contested elections. In compliance with the petition, Henry, in the following year, appointed a "great and continual Council," consisting of six bishops, nine lords, and seven commoners, by whose advice he promised to be guided in all public affairs. Toward the end of the reign, however, when the King felt his throne to be secure, he ventured to resist the demands of the Commons for extended privilege, especially in the matter of free speech.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1400 (?) Death of Richard II.	1403. Battle of Shrewsbury.
1401. Statute of Heretics.	1405. Capture of James, Prince of Scotland.
1402. Scots defeated at Nesbit Moor and Homildon Hill.	1405. Execution of Archbishop Scrope.
	1408. Death of the Earl of Northumberland.

GREAT NAMES.

Earl of Westmoreland, Henry's brother-in-law, Earl Marshal.	Sir Henry Percy ("Hotspur"), son of Northumberland.
Earl of Northumberland. Constable : afterwards a rebel.	Archibald, Earl of Douglas, a prisoner in England.
Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, imprisoned.	Archbishop Arundel, restored to office by Henry.
Rev. William Sawtre, first Protestant martyr in England.	James, Prince of Scotland, a prisoner in England.
Owen Glendower, leader of the Welsh rebels.	Scrope, Archbishop of York, executed as a rebel.
	Henry, Prince of Wales, afterwards King.

THE MORTIMERS.

Roger Mortimer,
4th in descent from Ralph, who fought at Hastings,
and afterwards conquered Edric of Wigmore.
Roger fought for Henry III. at Evesham.

(Died 1282.)
↓
Edmund,
Lord of Wigmore.
(Died 1303.)

↓
Roger,
Lord of Wigmore,
1st Earl of March.
(Executed 1330.)

↓
Edmund, Lord Mortimer.
(Died 1331.)

↓
Roger,
2nd Earl of March.
(Died 1360.)

↓
Edmund,
3rd Earl of March.
(Died 1381.)

Sir Edmund Mortimer.

= Philippa Plantagenet,
daughter of
Duke of Clarence,
3rd son of Edward III.

(See Tree, p. 189.)

REIGN OF HENRY V. (LANCASTER).

1413-1422.

CHAPTER XXVII.—RENEWAL OF THE FRENCH WAR.

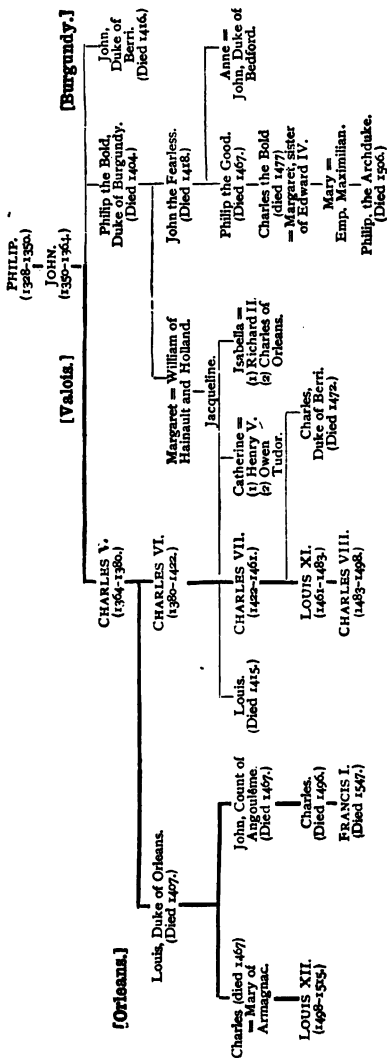
1. **Accession of Henry V.¹: 1413.**—Henry V. ascended the throne without challenge, and was crowned at Westminster three weeks after his father's death (April 9). The responsibilities of his position sobered him at once. The riotous Prince Hal was suddenly transformed into the brave and spirited King Henry V.—Shakespeare's ideal King. His earliest acts were to discard his old companions; to call around him the wisest of the land; to set free the Earl of March; and to restore the Percy estates to the exiled son of Hotspur. He caused the body of Richard II. to be buried in Westminster Abbey. Determined to have a minister who should carry out his policy both in England and in France, he removed Archbishop Arundel from the chancellorship, and appointed in his place Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, a son of John of Gaunt.

Pol. imp. 2. **Persecution of the Lollards: 1413-1417.**—Henry adopted his father's policy in one particular. He tried to purchase the support of the Church by suppressing the Lollards. Their leader, Sir John Oldcastle (Lord Cobham by right of his wife), made his castle of Cowling, in Kent, the head-quarters of Lollardism. When Arundel, the Primate, summoned him to his court, he refused to appear. He was then captured, condemned as a heretic, and borne to the dungeons of the Tower (September

¹ Henry V., eldest son of Henry IV. and Catherine of France. Issue, one son—Mary de Bohun. Born 1388. Married | Reigned 9 years.

GENEALOGICAL TREE.

VALOIS-ORLEANS AND BURGUNDY.



1413). Having escaped from prison, Oldcastle gathered his followers in St. Giles's Fields in January; but the King burst upon their meeting at the dead of night, and took many prisoners (1414). Though the leader escaped, many of those who were taken were executed. Henry Chicheley, who succeeded Arundel at this time, continued the persecution. Three years afterwards, Oldcastle was captured in Wales, and was burned in London (1417).

3. **Position of Parties in France.**—Henry took an early opportunity to begin the aggressive policy in France which he had urged on his father in vain. That country was still convulsed with the civil war between the Burgundians and the Armagnacs, or Orleanists. Charles VI. was still alive, though a cipher in State affairs. Louis, the Dauphin, was a libertine and of little account, and the government was chiefly in the hands of John, Duke of Berri, Charles's uncle. John, Duke of Burgundy, and Charles, Duke of Orleans, were at the head of their respective factions; but Orleans was only twenty-three years of age, and the real leader of his faction was his father-in-law the Count of Armagnac, whose name the party then bore. At the time when Henry began to meddle in French affairs, the Armagnacs had driven the Burgundians out of Paris, and were in the ascendant.

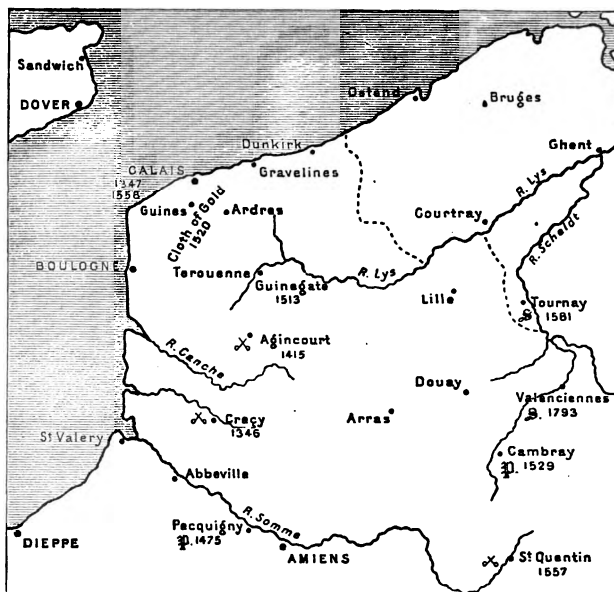
4. **Henry's Claim: 1414.**—Henry took advantage of the confusion to claim the French crown by right of descent from Philip IV. through his daughter Isabella. This was in fact a revival of the claim of Edward III.;¹ but Henry must have known that if his claim were good, that of Edmund, Earl of March, would be better, since he was descended from an elder branch of Edward's line. With the crown, Henry demanded the hand of the Princess Catherine, the execution of the Treaty of Bretigny, and the balance of the ransom-money of King John. The Dauphin proposed a compromise. This Henry rejected, and then he prepared for war. His brother John,

¹ *The claim of Edward III.* That claim was that Edward's mother was daughter of Philip IV.; but it was futile, because Charles of Navarre, a descendant of Philip's eldest son, was still alive. (See Genealogical tree, p. 165.)

Duke of Bedford, was appointed Regent; the royal jewels were pawned; loans were exacted; and the barons, much to their delight, were called to arms.

5. **First Invasion: 1415.**—The departure of the expedition was delayed by the discovery of a plot to kill Henry and put the Earl of March on the throne. Its leader was Richard, Earl of Cambridge (brother of the Duke of York), whose wife was March's sister, and with whom were associated Lord Scrope and Sir Thomas Grey. All these were convicted and executed in the beginning of August; and a week later Henry sailed from Southampton with an army of 30,000 men. Having landed at the mouth of the Seine, he besieged Harfleur, a strong fortress on the right bank of the river, and with the aid of large cannons or mortars took it in five weeks. Then, with an army reduced to one-half its former number by wounds and sickness, he resolved to reach Calais by the same route as that by which the troops of Edward III. had marched to Crécy. His march was harassed by the Dukes of Bourbon and Orleans. He found the bridges of the Somme broken down, and the fords defended by lines of sharp stakes; but, after a delay of some days, an unguarded point was discovered high up the stream, near St. Quentin. Having crossed rapidly, he moved straight upon Calais, but found the Constable of France awaiting his approach before the village of Agincourt, on the 24th of October—a dark and rainy night.

6. **Battle of Agincourt: 1415.**—The French army, numbering nearly 60,000 men, was drawn up, not very skilfully, on a narrow plain between two woods. Besides the Constable D'Albret, there were present the Dukes of Orleans, Anjou, Alençon, and Bourbon, and the flower of the French nobility. The English army numbered less than 10,000 men. The battle began on the morning of the 25th with a tremendous discharge of arrows from the English archers, who had erected in front of them a palisade of sharp stakes. Galled by the persistent shower, the French infantry attempted to advance, but immediately fell into confusion, broke, and fled. The French knights essayed a charge, but their horses slipped and stumbled



on the muddy ground, and unable to resist the rain of arrows, they too fell back in disorder. Then the English archers, slinging their bows over their shoulders and drawing their swords, or arming themselves with pikes and battle-axes, fell with fury on the disordered masses of Frenchmen, and slaughtered them in hundreds. The French rear-guard, instead of advancing to support the first and second lines, turned and fled. The French loss amounted to 10,000, of whom 3,000 at least were of noble blood. Among them were the Constable D'Albret and the Duke of Alençon. The Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon were among the prisoners, the former of whom remained in England unransomed for twenty-five years. The English lost only about 1,600 men, including, however, the Duke of York and the young Earl of Suffolk (Michael de la Pole).

7. Henry's Return.—Henry did not stay to follow up his victory, as he might have done. The day after the battle, he continued his march toward Calais, and after spending nearly

three weeks there he crossed to Dover, with the most important of his prisoners. His reception by his own people, and especially by the citizens of London, was most enthusiastic. No welcome seemed too warm for him. The Parliament, unasked, voted him large sums, and granted to him for life a tax on wool and leather. The King had so dazzled his people by the lustre of his victory that they could not deny his requests. At no time were supplies of money more freely voted than in this reign. But in return for their liberality the Commons acquired increased influence.

8. **Second Invasion: 1417-1420.**—The Armagnacs were almost completely extinguished at Agincourt, but the Count of Armagnac himself survived, and he formed a new party, composed chiefly of upstarts and adventurers. The Dauphin made him Constable of France and Chief Minister. The Duke of Burgundy had as yet taken no part in the war; but in 1416 he became the ally of Henry of England, and subsequently of Queen Isabella of France, whom her husband, King Charles, had, at Armagnac's instigation, shut up in prison at Tours. Having released the Queen, Burgundy and she assumed the direction of affairs. Henry crossed to France, to renew the war, in August 1417. Within a few weeks Caen, Bayeux, and other fortresses fell into his hands. Slowly but surely he extended his conquests, until the fall of Rouen, after a siege of six months, made him complete master of Normandy (January 1419). His path to the French throne was opened by an unforeseen occurrence. In June 1418, after a terrible butchering of the Armagnacs—including the Count—the Duke of

Abroad.—In 1418, the Council of Constance (met 1414) put an end to the "Great Schism." Three rival Popes were deposed, and Martin V. was elected. The opinions of Wyclif were condemned. John Huss, the Bohemian Reformer, was condemned and burned, 1415, and Jerome of Prague in 1416.

In 1417, Frederick VI. of Nürnberg, founder of the reigning dynasty of Hohenzollern in Prussia, became Elector of Brandenburg by purchase from the Emperor of Germany. The electors became dukes in 1525, kings in 1701; and in 1871 the King of Prussia became head of the new German Empire.

Burgundy seized the government; and the Dauphin (Charles) withdrew to Melun. In the following July, Burgundy was foully murdered during a conference with the Dauphin; and his faction, thirsting for revenge, threw their whole weight on Henry's side. He was thus enabled to dictate terms of peace to the French monarch, and the Treaty of Troyes¹ was framed (May 1420). Its leading conditions were:—1. That Henry should receive in marriage the French Princess Catherine; 2. That he should be Regent during the life of Charles; 3. That he should succeed to the French throne on the death of that Prince.

9. **Third Invasion: 1421.**—A visit to England with his bride, who was crowned at Westminster, was suddenly clouded by news of disaster, which recalled him to France. The Dauphin, reinforced by a large body of Scots under the Earl of Buchan, had routed the English troops at Beaugé, and had slain the Duke of Clarence, Henry's brother (1421). Henry landed in France for the third time in June 1421. He had secured the alliance of Douglas and other Scottish nobles, with consent of the captive James; and perhaps it was in the hope that the Scots would not fight against their King that Henry led him into battle. Henry drove his foe into Bourges,² and paralyzed all hostile efforts by the capture of Meaux, a stronghold near Paris.

10. **Death of Henry: 1422.**—Henry was now within sight of the goal of his ambition. He was master of Northern France to the banks of the Loire; a son had been lately born to inherit his honours and his name; the splendour of his court at the Louvre far outshone the petty pomp of the real King. But in the height of his career he was cut off by a disease to which he had long been subject. He died at Vincennes, near Paris, August 31, 1422, in the thirty-fifth year of his age. In gorgeous state his remains were borne to England, and were laid in the vault of Westminster. Henry's widow,

Scotland.—In 1419, the Duke of Albany died, and was succeeded in the regency by his son Murdoch.

¹ *Troyes*, on the Seine, 90 miles south-east of Paris.

² *Bourges*, 60 miles south-east of Orleans.

Catherine, afterwards married Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman; and their eldest son, created Earl of Richmond, was the father of Henry VII., the first sovereign of the Tudor line. Two months after Henry's death, his rival, Charles VI. of France, also died, and was succeeded by his son Charles VII.

11. Character of Henry V.—Henry V. was personally a man of high principle. He was earnestly religious, and he lived a pure life. He was kind to his friends and generous to his enemies. His zeal for religion took the mistaken form of persecuting the Lollards. At the same time he was resolute in resisting the encroachments of the Papal Court on his prerogative. In his public policy he gave proofs of statesmanship. His French war has been set down to his ambition; but more probably his design was to strengthen his throne by dazzling his people with military glory, and by preventing factions at home; and he undoubtedly succeeded in making himself popular and respected.

12. The Constitution.—Henry's need of money to carry on his French war made him dependent on the Commons, and increased their power. Since the reign of Edward III., it had been customary to found legislation on petitions of the Commons to the King. On a petition, and the answer of the King with the advice of his Council, a statute was framed by a committee of judges. The Commons complained, however, that the statute often differed widely from the petition on which it was based; and in the reign of Henry V. (1414) an agreement was made between the Parliament and the King that statutes should be framed without alteration of the petitions on which they were founded.

13. Notes of Progress.—The foundation of the British Navy may be ascribed to this reign. Henry caused a ship of considerable size to be built for him at Bayonne; and he kept up a fleet of twelve vessels to protect the coasts. He had also at command the Cinque Ports fleet of sixty ships. The fleets already spoken of were either merchant vessels or ships hired from foreign states. Merchant enterprise also increased.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1413. Bishop Beaufort appointed Chancellor.
 1415. Victory at Agincourt.
 1417. Lord Cobham burned as a heretic.

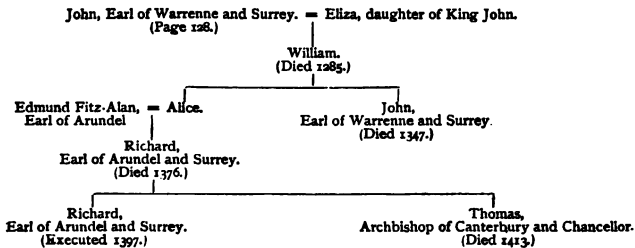
1420. Treaty of Troyes.
 1422. Death of Henry, in France.

GREAT NAMES.

Archbishop Arundel, persecutor of the Lollards.
 Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, Chancellor.
 Henry Chicheley, Archbishop of Canterbury.
 1414.
 John, Duke of Bedford, Henry's brother, Regent.

John, Duke of Burgundy, head of the Burgundians in France.
 Louis, Duke of Orleans, murdered in 1407.
 Charles, Duke of Orleans, head of the Orleanists.
 Count of Armagnac, father-in-law of Charles of Orleans.

WARRENNE, SURREY, AND ARUNDEL.



REIGN OF HENRY VI. (LANCASTER).

1422-1461.

CHAPTER XXVIII.—FINAL LOSS OF FRANCE.

1. **The Regency: 1422.**—The new King, Henry VI.,¹ was an infant nine months old. The late King had left a will appointing his elder brother John, Duke of Bedford, as Regent in France, and his younger brother Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, as Regent in England. By the advice of the Privy Council, the Parliament set aside the will, on the ground that the King had no right to dispose of the regency. Taking the matter into its own hands, the Parliament nominated Bedford as Regent both of England and of France; but during Bedford's absence in France, Gloucester was to act as Regent in England, with the title of "Protector of the Realm of England," and subject to the advice of the Council. The guardianship of the young King was given to Henry Beaufort,² Bishop of Winchester.

2. **The Position in France.**—Charles VII. was crowned at Poitiers, and took up his residence at Bourges, in Berri. Bedford had his nephew proclaimed King at Paris, and ruled in his name. At this time the English were masters of Normandy, Maine, and the rest of the north of France, and of Guienne and Gascony in the south. They had also a powerful ally in Philip, Duke of Burgundy, whose sister Bedford married. The authority of Charles was recognized only in the centre and the south.

¹ *Henry VI.*, only son of Henry V. and Catherine of France. Born 1421. Married Margaret of Anjou. Issue, one son. Reigned 39 years.

² *Henry Beaufort*, son of John of Gaunt and Catherine Swynford. He and his brothers were legitimated by Richard II. (See Genealogical Tree p. 238.)

east. Bedford was ably assisted in maintaining the English cause by Thomas, Earl of Salisbury. The armies of Charles included 6,000 Scots, commanded by the Earl of Douglas, who was made Duke of Touraine.

3. Battles of Crevant: 1423—and Verneuil: 1424.—A great victory gained by Salisbury over the French and the Scots at Crevant, near Auxerre (July 1423), saved Burgundy from invasion. The Constable of France (the Scottish Earl of Buchan) was besieging Crevant as a preliminary to the invasion of Burgundy. Salisbury routed the besiegers, and took Buchan prisoner. In the following year, the Constable, who had been released, entered Maine, with the view of preventing Bedford from entering Brittany; but he was defeated and slain at Verneuil¹ (August 1424), and the English supremacy in the north was established. The Duke of Touraine (Douglas) was also slain at Verneuil, and the Duke of Alençon was among the prisoners. To put an end to the alliance between the Scots and the French, Bedford advised the Government at home to arrange for the release of the Scottish King, who was still a prisoner at Windsor. An arrangement for that purpose was completed in September 1423. The Scots were to pay £40,000 for the "board and education" of their King during eighteen years, and James promised to keep at peace with England, and to marry an English wife. He returned to Scotland in April 1424, having shortly before married Lady Joan Beaufort, daughter of the Earl of Somerset.

4. Breach with Burgundy: 1424.—The next important event in France was a rupture between the English and Philip, Duke of Burgundy, which undid nearly all the good that Bedford had accomplished. For this the Duke of Gloucester was responsible. He had married Jacqueline of Hainault and Holland, who had deserted her husband, the Duke of Brabant. Gloucester claimed his wife's possessions in the Netherlands. Brabant resisted, and was supported by his cousin, Philip of Burgundy, who saw in the marriage of Brabant and Jacqueline

¹ Verneuil, 80 miles west of Paris.

a means of bringing all the Netherlands under his power. When the Pope (Martin V.) annulled Gloucester's marriage, the Duke submitted, and returned to England. Jacqueline recognized Burgundy as heir to all her possessions, and promised not to marry without his consent. The consequence was that Philip became estranged from the English, and even opened negotiations with the Dauphin.

5. **Bedford inactive: 1425-1428.**—For that and other reasons, Bedford was not in a position to take active measures in France during the next two or three years. Charles's position was improved, not only by the detaching of Burgundy from the English alliance, but also by the support of the Duke of Brittany. Bedford's attention was distracted, as his position was weakened, by the unseemly disputes between Gloucester and Bishop Beaufort in England, which will be referred to in the next chapter.

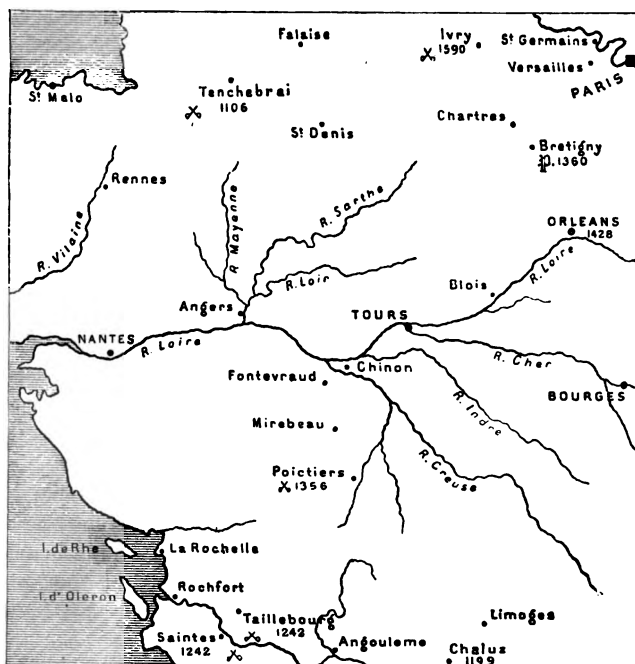
6. **Siege of Orleans: 1428.**—Bedford, who had become partially reconciled with Burgundy and Brittany, resumed active measures in 1428. It was resolved that the English army should invade the provinces held by Charles south of the Loire. As a preparatory step, Orleans was besieged in October by the Earl of Salisbury, who, however, was mortally wounded with a cannon ball early in the siege, and was succeeded by the Earl of Suffolk (William de la Pole).¹ In February following, a skirmish took place, which has received the strange name of "The Battle of Herrings." At Rouveray,² Sir John Fastolf, an English knight, beat back a body of French cavalry, which attacked him as he was escorting a train of provision-cars to the camp of the besiegers. Salted fish formed a large part of the stores, and hence arose the name. This success, and the energy with which the English carried on the siege, dispirited the French, who now looked upon Orleans as lost.

7. **Joan of Arc: 1429.**—Suddenly there came a change. Early in 1429, Joan of Arc,³ a humble village maiden of Lor-

¹ *Earl of Suffolk*, grandson of Michael de la Pole, the minister of Richard II.

² *Rouveray*, 20 miles north-west of Orleans.

³ *Joan of Arc*. The correct orthography is "Jeanne d'Arc." Born 1412. De Quincy's eloquent Essay on Joan of Arc should be read.



raïne, sought the presence of the French King at Chinon,¹ and there proclaimed that she had a mission from Heaven to drive the English from Orleans and to crown Charles at Reims.² Either believing her story, or desirous to work upon the superstition of his soldiers, the Monarch paid her every honour. Clad in white armour, she rode on a black steed to the rescue of Orleans. She passed the English lines, when the sentinels had deserted their posts during a thunder-storm, and entered the city (April 29). Her presence filled the defenders with new spirit, and completely changed the aspect of affairs. On May 8th she attacked and captured the strongest of the English forts. The English broke up their camp the next day, and retreated so hastily that they left their artillery and their

¹ Chinon, 25 miles south-west of Tours. | ² Reims, 90 miles north-east of Paris.

baggage behind them. Thus Joan earned her title, "The Maid of Orleans." In July, Charles was crowned at Reims, and her mission was fulfilled.

8. **Joan's Death: 1431.**—The Maid's success was short-lived. Many Frenchmen were either ashamed to be led by a woman, or were jealous of her triumph. Burgundy was alarmed at the improved prospects of Charles, and again joined the English. In a sortie from the town of Compiègne,¹ in May 1430, Joan was pulled from her horse by a Burgundian soldier, and made prisoner. She was sold to the English Regent, and after twelve months' imprisonment was burned as a witch in the marketplace of Rouen (May 30, 1431).

9. **Decline of English Power.**—The young Henry, who had been crowned at Westminster in 1429, was now crowned at Paris by Cardinal Beaufort in 1431—a step considered necessary after the coronation of Charles at Reims. But the crowning at Paris was an empty form. Two years afterwards, Bedford offended the Duke of Burgundy by marrying Jacquetta of Luxemburg. A congress was held at Arras² in 1435, but it failed to bring about peace. The English commissioners declined the terms offered, and withdrew. Then two severe blows shook the English power in France: the great Bedford died at Rouen a few days after the congress; and Burgundy, holding that that released him from his engagement, acknowledged Charles VII., and was received into alliance and favour. Richard, Duke of York,³ succeeded Bedford as Regent of France. Thereafter the English cause in France declined. Paris was taken by the French in 1436; and the English continued to lose ground, till in 1444 they were glad to make a truce for two years. The Earl of Suffolk, who negotiated the truce, was made a marquis.

10. **Surrender of Anjou and Maine: 1445—Normandy: 1449.**—In the following year Henry married the beautiful and high-spirited Margaret, daughter of Renè, Count of Guise, and

¹ Compiègne, 60 miles north of Paris.

² Arras, 40 miles north of Amiens.

³ Richard, Duke of York. He was grand-

son of Edmund Langley, fifth son of Edward III., and was father of Edward IV. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 189.)

afterwards Duke of Lorraine and Anjou. The provinces of Anjou and Maine were then, by a reversal of the ordinary custom, restored to the father of the bride. They were considered the keys of Normandy ; and Suffolk, who negotiated the marriage, was blamed for their loss. French troops poured across the Loire, and soon Rouen and all Normandy submitted (1449).

11. Loss of Gascony: 1453.—From the north of France Charles turned to the south. Gate after gate of the Gascon cities opened to his triumphant march, and when Bayonne fell in 1451, the English flag waved nowhere, from the Strait of Dover to the Pyrenees, except on the citadel of Calais. In the following year, John Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, the last of the great English commanders reared by the Hundred Years' French War, made a bold effort to recover Gascony. He succeeded in capturing Bordeaux, but he was defeated and killed at Châtillon in July 1453. Three months later, the French recovered Bordeaux ; and thus ended the dream of an English Empire in France.

CHAPTER XXIX.—GLOUCESTER AND BEAUFORT.

1. Character of Gloucester.—Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, very soon showed that he was dissatisfied with the position assigned to him by Parliament at the settlement of the regency. Its practical effect was to make the Council supreme ; and though he was President of the Council, he was bound to act only with their advice. He was ambitious, headstrong, and foolish, and was the cause of most of the troubles of the early part of the reign. We have seen how his rash marriage with Jacqueline of Hainault gave a serious

Abroad.—In 1433, Philip (the Good), Duke of Burgundy, wrested Holland from his cousin Jacqueline. In 1443 he bought Luxemburg from Elizabeth, the duchess.

In 1437, Duke Albert of Austria, having acquired by marriage the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, was elected Emperor of Germany as Albert II.

blow to the Burgundian alliance in France. In England he strove to undermine the influence of Bishop Beaufort, who was tutor to the young King, and who had been made Chancellor in 1424, chiefly with the view of acting as a check on Gloucester. Hence there arose a fierce rivalry between these two men, which lasted for twenty-three years—indeed, until death parted them.

2. Character of Beaufort.—Beaufort was a man of a different kind from Gloucester. He was a statesman of the type of Langton and Winchelsey, and a man of high principle. He was not without ambition, but he was ambitious not so much for himself as for his family, the house of Somerset. He was also very wealthy, and he did not grudge to spend his money in the service of the state. Gloucester's showy manners and gay disposition made him popular with the masses; but in the Council, Beaufort was supreme. Gloucester fretted under the Bishop's domination, and there were frequent open quarrels between them. When the Council failed to keep them at peace, the Duke of Bedford, who was the only man that could control his brother, was called over from France to reconcile them (1426). This he succeeded in doing, one of the terms of agreement being that Beaufort should leave England for a time.

3. Gloucester's Attack on Beaufort.—Beaufort was absent two years; and when he returned in 1428, he brought with him the titles of Cardinal and Papal Legate, which the Pope (Martin V.) had conferred on him. Gloucester made this a new ground of quarrel; and he was supported by Archbishop Chicheley, who claimed to be Legate *ex officio*, and who urged that Beaufort, in accepting office from the Pope without the King's permission, had exposed himself to the penalties of *præmunire*. Beaufort prudently withdrew from the Council until the excitement had blown over, when he quietly returned to it without challenge. In the interval he had sent troops to Bedford in France, to assist at the siege of Orleans. So important a service deserved some return. In the meantime, Bedford caused the young King (aged eight) to be crowned at Westminster in November 1429, and put an end both to his

Regency and to Gloucester's Protectorship, the government being left in the hands of the Council. But the disputes between Gloucester and Beaufort did not cease. In 1431, Gloucester charged the Cardinal with being the vassal of a foreign power, and as President of the Council ordered a writ of *præmunire* to be prepared. Before it could be served, Beaufort made a declaration of his loyalty, and the blow was averted.

4. **Death of Bedford.**—Bedford returned to England in 1433, and spent a year there. The state of affairs in France was growing critical, and the state of affairs at home caused him much anxiety. Vast sums of money had been spent on the war, and the national finances were in confusion. He was in favour of peace with France, provided that it could be effected on advantageous terms. Gloucester would not hear of peace; at any cost the war must be carried on until France was subdued. There were thus developed a peace party and a war party in England. Bedford got his way so far. The Congress of Arras met in August 1435; but as has been said already, the English commissioners declined the terms of peace. A month later Bedford died, and the Duke of Burgundy joined France—two calamities from which the English cause never recovered.

5. **Release of the Duke of Orleans.**—Gloucester now pressed his war policy with increased vigour, while Beaufort was at the head of the party of peace. The latter gained a decided advantage when, in spite of the violent opposition of Gloucester, he obtained in 1440 the release of the Duke of Orleans, who had been a prisoner ever since the Battle of Agincourt. Beaufort's object was to secure the Duke as a mediator of peace, on his return to Paris; and it was agreed that, if he succeeded, the ransom of 134,000 gold crowns should be remitted. No peace was effected; and although Beaufort gave up the Duke's ransom for the public good, Gloucester continued virulently to charge him with self-seeking, and he was so general a favourite that many believed him.

6. **Rise of Suffolk.**—Henry came of age in 1442, and then he took the government into his own hands. His mild and gentle disposition did not give promise of ability to cope with

such men as his uncle Gloucester. Being religious and peace-loving, he sympathized with the policy of Beaufort, to whom he was personally attached. Beaufort, however, was now growing old, and withdrew himself as much as possible from the conflicts of the Council Chamber. His place was taken by the Earl of Suffolk, who soon acquired great influence over Henry. It was he, as we have seen, who negotiated the truce with France in 1444, and also the marriage of Henry with Margaret of Anjou in the following year. For these services he was thanked by both Houses of Parliament, and was created first a marquis and afterwards a duke. He became Queen Margaret's favourite adviser, and ruled the King through her. He was the leader of the Council, and Gloucester's influence there rapidly waned.

7. Death of Gloucester and of Beaufort: 1447.—When Parliament met at Bury St. Edmunds in 1447, Gloucester was arrested, and was charged with high treason; but before he could be tried, he was found dead in his bed. The cause of his death was never discovered; most persons blamed Suffolk. His life-long rival, Cardinal Beaufort, died about two months afterwards. Gloucester's death made Richard, Duke of York,¹ the nearest heir to the throne, and it left Suffolk in possession of the highest authority and influence both with Queen Margaret and with the King. It was during his rule that the events occurred that led to the Wars of the Roses.

Scotland.—In 1437, King James I. was murdered in the Blackfriars' Monastery at Perth by Robert Graham, Sir John Hall, and other conspirators. He had given offence to his nobles by resuming estates that had been granted to prominent men.

In 1440, William, sixth Earl of Douglas, and his brother were cruelly murdered in Edinburgh Castle by order of Sir William Crichton and Sir Alexander Livingston.

¹ *Duke of York.* Already mentioned | regency of France. (See Genealogical (p. 211) as the successor of Bedford in the | Tree, p. 189.)

CHAPTER XXX.—THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

1. **Fall of Suffolk: 1450.**—The two men whom Suffolk had most cause to regard as rivals were sent out of the country soon after Gloucester's death. The Duke of York went to Ireland as Lord-Lieutenant. Edmund Beaufort,¹ who succeeded his brother John as Duke of Somerset, went to France as Lieutenant-General. Suffolk's fall was brought about by the negotiations with France for which he had been publicly thanked and honoured. The loss of the French provinces excited great discontent throughout England, and as Suffolk had advised the restoration of Anjou and Maine to Renè, he was marked as an object of special hatred. Riots occurred in various parts of England, and were due to hostility to Suffolk and his ministers. At Portsmouth, one of these ministers—Moleyns, Bishop of Chichester—was murdered. Suffolk was impeached in the Parliament of 1450, and was sentenced to banishment for five years. He left Ipswich in the hope of being allowed to land at Calais; but in the Strait of Dover a warship bore down on his frail craft, and he was summoned on board *The Nicholas of the Tower*, where the captain received him with the words, "Welcome, traitor!" Two days afterwards a boat reached the side of the ship, carrying a headsman, a block, and a rusty sword; and on this strange scaffold Suffolk died.

2. **Cade's Rebellion: 1450.**—A rumour of preparations for a terrible revenge reached the men of Kent, who had furnished the ship which seized Suffolk. They were the descendants of those who had followed Tyler to Smithfield. Headed by Jack Cade,—who called himself a Mortimer, pretending to be a son of the Earl of March,—they marched to Blackheath, and sent to the Council a "Complaint," in which they demanded the appointment of the Duke of York as minister, economy of the public money, and freedom of election. The movement therefore differed from Tyler's in being political and not merely

¹ *Edmund Beaufort*, a grandson of John of Cardinal Beaufort. (See *Genealogical of Gaunt and Catherine Swynford*; nephew Tree, p. 238.)

social ; and it was fomented, if not instigated, by York. When the Council refused to receive the "Complaint," the rebels had recourse to arms. The King's troops were defeated at Sevenoaks, and their leader was slain. Ascough, Bishop of Salisbury, one of Suffolk's associates, was murdered by insurgents in Wiltshire. Cade marched to London, whereupon Henry withdrew to Kenilworth.

Unresisted, the rebels entered the city, Cade cutting the ropes of the drawbridge with his sword as he passed. They put to death Lord Say, another of Suffolk's ministers. For two days they held the city ; but on the third the pillage of some houses roused the Londoners, who seized the bridge and held it gallantly for six hours. A short truce was then made, and the Bishop of Winchester took advantage of the interval to offer a free pardon to all who should return to their homes at once. The offer was eagerly accepted, and Cade was left with scarcely a follower. A second time he tried to raise a force, but failed ; and having fled, he was discovered and slain in a garden near Lewes, in Sussex.

3. **Somerset supreme: 1450-1453.**—The death of Suffolk and the events that followed it brought on the stage the two men whom he had feared as rivals, and who now appeared as rivals of each other—the Duke of Somerset and the Duke of York. Somerset, who had failed to recover Normandy, returned to England, and was at once taken into favour by the King, and appointed Constable. York returned from Ireland, assembled his vassals, and demanded the removal of Somerset. Taking up the cry for reform that had been raised by Cade and his followers, he had the support of the people. Somerset had most of the nobles on his side, though some of them were jealous of his power. In 1451, a proposal was made in Parliament to declare York heir to the throne—which, in fact, he was, as Henry had as yet no son ; but York still asserted his loyalty, and declared that he desired only the removal of bad ministers. It was on that ground that he appealed to arms in the following year, and marched to Blackheath, relying on the support of the men of Kent. By Henry's promise to dismiss

Somerset and form a new Council, York was induced to disband his followers; but he soon found that he had been deceived. Somerset was retained in power; and York, now helpless, was forced to submit and to swear allegiance. For the time, Somerset's position was strong. He had a majority in Parliament, of which Thomas Thorpe was Speaker; and he had the support of Archbishop Kemp, the Chancellor.

4. **York Protector: 1454.**—At this critical point the King, who had always shown signs of mental as well as of bodily weakness, was seized with a fit of insanity; and about the same time a son was born to him (1453). It was necessary that Parliament should appoint a regent, and it was impossible to set aside York's claims. Somerset, whose unpopularity was increased by the news of the loss of all the French possessions except Calais, was thrown into prison. When Parliament met, it appointed the Duke of York Protector and Defender of the kingdom during Prince Edward's minority (April 1454). York filled the Council with his own supporters. He appointed to the Chancellorship Richard Neville,¹ Earl of Salisbury, his brother-in-law; and he imprisoned Thorpe,² the Speaker of the Commons.

5. **Civil War: 1455.**—In less than a year this sudden transformation was as suddenly reversed by the King's recovery. York and his ministers were dismissed. Somerset returned from prison to power, and recalled his former associates. York then appealed to arms—not against the King, but, as he pro-

Scotland.—In 1449, King James II. married Mary, daughter of the Duke of Gueldres. In 1451, Glasgow University was founded by Papal bull. In 1452, William, eighth Earl of Douglas ("the Black Douglas"), was fatally stabbed by James II., in a fit of rage, in Stirling Castle. Douglas had refused to break his league with the Earls of Crawford and Ross.

¹ *Richard Neville.* He was son of the Earl of Westmoreland, but married the daughter and heiress of Thomas Montacute, Earl of Salisbury. His mother was Joan Beaufort, sister of the Cardinal, and of John, Duke of Somerset. York was married to Cicely Neville.

² *Imprisoned Thorpe.* That was a violation of the privilege of Parliament, secured by statute in 1408. (See ch. xxvi., § 18.) The Commons demanded his release; but the Lords refused to recognize the privilege—probably because Thorpe was a Lancastrian—and the Speaker remained in prison.

fessed, to rescue the King from the hands of Somerset. Then began the Wars of the Roses—so called from the badges of the rival armies: the ensign of the House of York being a white, that of the House of Lancaster a red rose. The chief supporters of York were the Earl of Salisbury, and his son, the Earl of Warwick,¹ afterwards famous as “the King-maker.” This great contest was essentially a war of nobles, in which the mass of the people took but a slight part; and as it greatly weakened the nobility, it gave its death-blow to Feudalism in England.

6. First Battle of St. Albans: 1455.—York, with Salisbury and Warwick, marched toward London, in hopes of securing the support of the citizens. Somerset, taking with him the King, the Duke of Buckingham, and many other nobles, moved northward to intercept York and guard the approaches to the capital. The armies met at St. Albans, and there was fought (May 23, 1455) the first battle of the civil war. York gained a complete victory, due mainly to the valour of Warwick. Somerset was slain, and the victors marched to London, taking the King with them, virtually as their prisoner. Henry’s illness returned soon afterwards, and Parliament again appointed York Protector. Early in the following year the King recovered, and at once revoked York’s commission. A period of two years passed, during which Henry carried on the government with the aid of William of Waynflete,² the Chancellor. Then an outward reconciliation was effected in St. Paul’s Church, where a procession of rival nobles, hand in hand, was headed by the Queen and the Duke of York (March 25).

7. Bloreheath and Ludlow: 1459.—The war was renewed

Abroad.—In 1453, Constantinople was taken by the Turks under Mohammed II. This event marks the extinction of the Eastern Empire, and the close of the history of the Middle Ages. The Greeks resident in the East were now scattered over Western Europe, bearing with them their manuscripts. This led to the revival of learning, and thus the seeds of the Reformation were sown.

¹ *Earl of Warwick*, also a Richard Neville. He obtained his title by marrying the heiress of the Earl of Warwick.

² *William of Waynflete*. William Pattyn, born at Waynflete, in Lincolnshire; first

Provost of Eton College, 1443; Bishop of Winchester, 1447; Chancellor, 1456-60; founded Magdalene College, Oxford; died, 1486.



PLACES OF INTEREST IN THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1455. St. Albans (Herts). | 1461. Towton (Yorkshire). |
| 1459. Bloreheath (Staffordshire). | 1464. Hedgley Moor (Northumberland). |
| 1460. Northampton. | " Hexham (Northumberland). |
| " Wakefield Green (Yorkshire). | 1471. Ravenspur (Yorkshire). |
| 1461. Mortimer's Cross (Herefordshire). | " Barnet (Middlesex). |
| " St. Albans (Herts). | " Tewkesbury (Gloucester). |
| | 1485. Bosworth-field (Leicester). |

in 1459. Queen Margaret, having learned that Salisbury was marching to join York at Kenilworth, sent Lord Audley with a small force to capture him. At Bloreheath, in Staffordshire, Salisbury defeated the Lancastrians, and Audley was slain. At Ludlow, three weeks later, a strange panic seized the Yorkist leaders, and they fled before the Queen's approach without striking a blow—York, with his second son, the Earl of Rutland, to Ireland; Salisbury and Warwick, with York's eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, to Calais. At a Parliament held at Coventry, a few weeks later, York and his supporters were attainted, and for the time the triumph of the Lancastrians seemed complete.

8. **York claims the Throne: 1460.**—On the invitation of the men of Kent, the Earls of March, Salisbury, and Warwick crossed the Strait of Dover in the following summer. They were soon at the head of an army of 30,000 men, with which they attacked the Queen's forces at Northampton (July 10). The Lancastrians were defeated. Their general, the Duke of Buckingham,¹ was slain. Henry was again taken prisoner, and the Queen, with her son Prince Edward, aged seven, fled to Scotland. Then, for the first time, York openly laid claim to the throne, as the representative of an older branch² of the royal family than that of Lancaster. The sympathies of the people were undoubtedly with York. Disastrous failure abroad and misgovernment at home had destroyed the faith of the commercial classes in the House of Lancaster. The proceedings of the Parliament of Coventry were annulled, and it was agreed that Henry should reign during his life, and that the crown should then pass to York and his heirs.

9. **Battle of Wakefield: 1460.**—This compromise, though accepted by Parliament, was rejected by the Lancastrian leaders. Margaret of Anjou, indignant that her son should be excluded from the throne, called her supporters to her side, and be-

¹ *Duke of Buckingham*, Humphrey Stafford, grandson, through his mother, of Thomas, sixth son of Edward III.

² *Older branch.* On his mother's side,

he was descended from the third son of Edward III., while John of Gaunt was the fourth son of that King. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 189.)

sieged York in Sandal Castle, near Wakefield. The Yorkists, having made a sally, were attacked and routed (December 1460). The Duke of York was slain, and, after the barbarous fashion of the time, his head, adorned with a paper crown, was fixed on the walls of the city of York. His second son, the Earl of Rutland, was cruelly butchered by Lord Clifford. Salisbury and other prisoners were executed at Pontefract the next day.

10. Henry dethroned : 1461.—This loss, instead of dispiriting the Yorkists, roused them to fiercer efforts. Edward, Earl of March, the eldest son of the fallen Duke, succeeded to the title and the claims of his father. He was a brave and handsome youth of nineteen, and the hearts of the people leaned to him. At Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire, he defeated the Lancastrians under the Earl of Pembroke,¹ the King's half-brother (1461). A few days later, Margaret, defeating Warwick in the second battle of St. Albans (1461), released the King from confinement, and sent him northward for safety. The effect of this victory was neutralized by the wild ravages of the Queen's troops, chiefly men of the north, who could not be controlled. Their conduct roused in the minds of the people strong indignation against the Lancastrian rule, and when Edward marched to London the citizens hailed him as a deliverer. An informal council, comprising such peers as were in London, declared that Henry had forfeited the throne by joining the Queen's army, and that Edward was rightful King. His proclamation in Westminster Hall the next day (March 4) was received with acclamation by the citizens.

11. Character of Henry VI.—Henry was amiable and pious, but was weak both in mind and body. He was totally unfit to govern England, especially in the troubled times in which he lived.

Scotland.—In 1460, James II., on his way to England to help Henry VI., besieged Roxburgh Castle, and was killed by the bursting of a cannon. His son James III. (aged eight) succeeded.

¹ *Earl of Pembroke, Jasper, younger son of Owen Tudor, whom Catherine, widow of Henry V., had married. The elder son* | *was Edmund, Earl of Richmond, father of Henry VII. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 238.)*

12. **The Constitution.**—During this reign, statutes were introduced into Parliament in the form of Bills, and not of petitions to the King. That was done as a more certain way of preventing the King from making alterations on any law before he gave his assent to it. The name "Privy Council," as applied to the King's Council, came into use. In 1422 it acted as a Council of Regency, appointed by statute. As a rule, however, the King chose his councillors; and from this time forward the Privy Council was dissociated from Parliament, and became an instrument in the hands of the King. The money qualification of voters was now introduced for the first time, an Act of 1430 restricting the vote to persons possessing freeholds worth 40s. a year. This was intended to reduce the number of voters, and to throw power into the hands of the upper classes.

CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1422. Bedford, Regent both of England and of France; Gloucester, Protector of England; Beaufort, tutor of the King. | 1442. Henry's majority. |
| 1423. Salisbury's victory at Crevant. | 1447. Death of Gloucester and of Beaufort. |
| 1424. Bedford's victory at Verneuil. | 1450. Fall and death of Suffolk. |
| 1429. Siege of Orleans raised by Joan of Arc. | 1450. Cade's rebellion. |
| 1431. Joan burned by the English. | 1450. Duke of Somerset in power. |
| 1435. Death of Bedford. | 1454. The King insane; York Protector. |
| 1436. Loss of Paris. | 1455. Wars of the Roses begun. |
| 1445. Loss of Anjou and Maine. | 1455. Yorkist victory at St. Albans. |
| 1449. Loss of Normandy. | 1455. York again Protector. |
| 1453. Loss of Gascony. | 1459. Yorkist victory at Bloreheath. |
| 1454. Bishop Beaufort made Chancellor. | 1459. Yorkist panic at Ludlow. |
| 1458. Quarrel of Gloucester and Beaufort. | 1460. Yorkist victory at Northampton. |
| 1459. The King crowned. | 1460. York claimed the throne. |
| 1460. Release of the Duke of Orleans. | 1460. Lancastrian victory at Wakefield. |
| | 1461. Yorkist victory at Mortimer's Cross. |
| | 1461. Lancastrian victory at St. Albans. |
| | 1461. Deposition of Henry. |

GREAT NAMES.

- | | |
|---|---|
| John, Duke of Bedford, uncle of the King, Regent of England and France. | Richard, Duke of York, grandson of Edmund Langley, Yorkist claimant; killed 1460. |
| Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, uncle of the King, Protector of England; Beaufort's rival. | Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, chief Lancastrian noble. |
| Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, guardian of the King. | Jack Cade, leader of the rebellion of 1450. |
| Thomas Montacute, Earl of Salisbury, great soldier; killed at Orleans (1428). | Thomas Thorpe, Speaker of the House of Commons; imprisoned by York. |
| Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury, chief supporter of York. | Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, son of Salisbury; called "the King-maker." |
| Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans. | William of Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester, the Chancellor; strong Lancastrian. |
| William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, favourite minister of Queen Margaret; executed 1450. | Margaret of Anjou, Henry's queen. |
| John Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, great commander; killed 1453. | Humphrey Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, Lancastrian general; slain at Northampton. |
| Henry Chicheley, Archbishop of Canterbury. | Jasper, Earl of Pembroke, the King's half-brother; Lancastrian general. |

REIGN OF EDWARD IV.¹ (YORK).

1461-1483.

CHAPTER XXXI.—THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

(CONTINUED.)

1. **Battle of Towton: 1461.**—As Edward owed his crown chiefly to Warwick, "the King-maker," that noble naturally became his chief adviser; while his brother, George Neville, Bishop of Winchester, was appointed Chancellor. But the Wars of the Roses were not yet ended. London, Kent, and the south generally had declared for Edward; but the north remained faithful to Henry, and there Henry, Duke of Somerset,² and Queen Margaret had assembled an army of 60,000 men, and were preparing to march on the capital. Before the end of March, the King and Warwick were in Yorkshire with an army of nearly 50,000 men. On the 28th, they met the Lancastrian outposts, under Lord Clifford, at the river Aire. In a skirmish at Ferry-bridge, Clifford was defeated and slain. Next day, during a snowstorm, Edward gained a great victory at Towton, near Tadcaster, which established his throne. Queen Margaret, with Henry and her son, escaped to Scotland. Edward returned to London, and was crowned. Parliament met in November, and declared the Lancastrian kings to have been usurpers. Many Lancastrians were executed, and a large number were deprived of their lands and reduced to poverty.

¹ *Edward IV.*, fifth in descent from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, son of Edward III. Born 1442. Married Lady Elizabeth Grey (or Woodville). Issue, three sons

and seven daughters. Reigned 22 years.

² *Duke of Somerset*, Henry Beaufort, son of Edmund, killed at St. Albans, 1455. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 238.)

2. **Hedgley Moor and Hexham: 1464.**—During the next year or two, Edward consolidated his power. To counteract the league between the Lancastrians and the Scots, he made a treaty with the Lord of the Isles. Queen Margaret, on the other hand, appealed alternately to the Scots and to the French for aid. In the beginning of 1464, her prospects had so much improved that she was able to lead an army from Scotland into England. Somerset and the Percies, who had submitted to Henry the year before, now rejoined her ranks. All was, however, to little purpose. Edward marched northward, accompanied by Lord Montague, Warwick's brother. At Hedgley Moor, near Wooler, on April 25, and again at Hexham on May 15, Montague routed the Lancastrians with terrible slaughter. Margaret and her son escaped to Flanders. Henry took refuge in Lancashire. Many prisoners, including the Duke of Somerset, were executed. Two years afterwards Henry was captured and was thrown into the Tower.

3. **The Woodvilles and the Nevilles.**—Edward had been for some time married to Elizabeth, widow of Sir John Grey, and daughter of Sir Richard Woodville, afterwards Earl Rivers. He avowed the marriage in 1464, and Elizabeth was crowned with great pomp at Westminster in the following year. Thereafter the Queen's relatives, who were chiefly Lancastrians, were married to the richest heirs and heiresses, and received high offices and titles of honour. This incensed the nobles, especially the powerful and haughty Nevilles, of which family the Earl of Warwick was now the head. Edward had deprived George Neville of the Chancellorship, and threatened to resume the estates of Warwick and Northumberland. The breach, growing daily wider, ended in an open quarrel. There was a formal reconciliation in 1468, but the feud continued. Warwick, aided by the Duke of Clarence, his son-in-law, and brother of the King, raised an insurrection among the men of York and Lincoln. In July 1469, the royal troops were defeated at Edgecote, near Banbury (Oxfordshire), and Earl Rivers and Sir John Woodville—the Queen's father and brother—were captured and executed. Some months afterwards, Warwick

and Clarence were denounced as traitors, and fled to the court of Louis XI., where they met Margaret of Anjou. Warwick and Margaret had now a common cause, and they united to dethrone Edward. The union was cemented by the marriage of Prince Edward, Margaret's son, to Anne, daughter of Warwick.

4. Restoration of Henry VI: 1470.—In September 1470, Warwick and Clarence landed without resistance near Plymouth. The hopes of the Lancastrians revived when 6,000 men cast the white roses from their bonnets and cried, "God bless King Harry!" Edward, having been deserted by Lord Montague (Warwick's brother), fled to Flanders; and when "the King-maker" entered London, he brought Henry from his cell to wear the crown once more. Parliament soon afterwards reversed the attainder of the Lancastrian kings, Edward was attainted, Prince Edward was declared to be Henry's heir, whom failing, the crown was to pass to Clarence.

5. Barnet and Tewkesbury: 1471.—Edward appealed for aid to his brother-in-law,¹ the Duke of Burgundy, and having received from him men, money, and ships, he landed at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire (March 1471). He declared at first that he had returned only to claim his family estates; but when he found the number of his supporters increase daily, he resumed the title of King, and marched on London. At Coventry, his brother Clarence, long an adherent of Warwick, rejoined him, and he was soon within the walls of the capital. The unfortunate Henry, whose supporters had gone to fight in his defence, was sent back to the Tower. The decisive battle was fought on Easter Sunday, 1471, at Barnet (Middlesex), where the Lancastrians were scattered, leaving every one of their leaders, Warwick² included, dead on the field. On that very day Mar-

Scotland.—In 1469, James III. married Margaret, daughter of Christian I. of Norway, and received the Orkney and Shetland Isles in security for her dowry and other debts.

Abroad.—In 1469, Ferdinand II. of Aragon married Isabella of Castile. Ten years later, they united the whole of the Christian dominions of Spain in a single monarchy.

¹ His brother-in-law. His sister Margaret was married to Charles the Bold. ² Warwick. Read Lord Lytton's "Last of the Barons."

garet and her son landed at Weymouth. Three weeks later their army was cut to pieces, and they were made prisoners, at Tewkesbury, in Gloucestershire. They were brought before the victor, and the heart of Margaret now sank beneath the heaviest blow of all when she saw the face of her son bruised by the iron glove of Edward, and the daggers of Clarence and Gloucester plunged in his heart. Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, was also executed after the battle. After five years in English prisons, Margaret was ransomed by Louis of France: she survived Tewkesbury eleven years. Henry died in the Tower, probably by violence, on the day of Edward's triumphal entry into London (May 21).

6. **The Crown absolute.**—The long continued civil war having cut off the most powerful nobles on both sides, the King became practically absolute. Though the influence of the Commons had been steadily growing, it was not yet powerful enough to resist or restrain the King. They had the power to withhold supplies, but that availed little when the King had other means at command for filling his treasury.

7. **French War—Benevolences.**—Of his complete independence in this respect, a French war soon enabled him to give proof. His brother-in-law, the Duke of Burgundy, induced him to join a league against France, and promised to recognize his title to the French crown. It was his interest to employ in foreign war those who might be inclined to plot against his government, or to stir up the embers of civil strife. Though the confiscations during the civil war had made the King a rich man, he applied to Parliament for money; and Parliament readily voted him supplies. But not satisfied with these, he invented a new and most elastic method of raising money—that of “benevolences,” or free gifts (1473).

8. **Treaty of Pecquigny: 1475.**—After much delay, he invaded France, but found his ally, the Duke of Burgundy, unable to give him any aid. In the midst of his uncertainty there came a welcome message from Louis proposing peace and alliance. At Pecquigny, below Amiens, a bridge was thrown across the Somme. Midway the Monarchs met, and shaking

hands through a wooden grating, swore to observe the terms of the treaty. Its chief conditions were:—1. That Louis should pay 75,000 crowns at once, and an annuity of 50,000 to Edward during his life; 2. That a truce and free trade should exist between the countries for seven years; 3. That the Dauphin should marry Elizabeth, Edward's eldest daughter. French gold, lavishly scattered among the English courtiers, helped to secure this treaty; but the people of England complained bitterly of the disgraceful end of a war for which they had been heavily taxed.

9. Introduction of Printing: 1476.—The most important event of Edward's reign was the introduction of the art of printing into England by William Caxton¹ in 1476. Caxton had learned the art from one of the pupils of Guttenberg in Flanders, where he resided for upwards of thirty years. In 1474 he had printed at Bruges a translation by himself from the French, entitled, "The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye"—the first English printed book. The first book printed in England was "The Dictes and Notable Wise Sayinges of the Philosophers," translated by Anthony, Earl Rivers, the Queen's brother, and that appeared in 1477. Between sixty and seventy works were issued from his press before he died. The introduction of printing led to the spread of education and the diffusion of literature; and in the train of these there came freedom of thought both in religion and in politics.

10. Death of Clarence: 1478.—Edward had great difficulty in keeping the peace between his brothers Clarence and Gloucester. Gloucester resolved to marry Anne Neville, the widow of Prince Edward, killed at Tewkesbury. Clarence objected, and tried to conceal her in the disguise of a serving-maid; but Gloucester discovered and married her. Clarence, however, refused to share Warwick's estates with his brother, and a violent quarrel ensued, which Parliament had to settle (1473). A few years later, Edward quarrelled with Clarence, because,

¹ *William Caxton*, born about 1421; apprenticed to a London mercer, 1438; went to Flanders, 1441, and settled at Bruges; joined the court of the Duchess of Bur-

gundy, 1471; returned to England, 1476; set up a printing-press at the Almonry, Westminster; printed sixty-eight works; died probably in 1491.

after the death of his wife, Isabella Neville, in 1476, he wished to marry Mary, the rich heiress of Burgundy. When Thomas Burdett, a friend of the Duke, was executed on a charge of practising "the black art," Clarence loudly blamed the King. In revenge, Edward summoned him before the House of Lords. He received sentence, and ten days later he died within the Tower. A common report said that he was drowned in a butt of malmsey. Most of his estates were conferred on Earl Rivers.

11. **Affairs of Scotland: 1482.**—In his later years, Edward interfered in the affairs of Scotland on behalf of the Duke of Albany, a brother of James III., who agreed by formal treaty, signed at Fotheringay, to hold Scotland as a fief of England, provided that Edward helped him to obtain the crown. Albany and the Duke of Gloucester marched northward, and laid siege to Berwick in July 1482. King James raised an army to oppose them, and marched to Lauder. There the Scottish nobles resolved to get rid of the low-born favourites with whom James had surrounded himself. Led by Archibald, Earl of Douglas ("Bell-the-Cat"), they seized Cochrane, "Earl of Mar," and five others, and hanged them on the bridge over the Leader. The expedition was abandoned by the Scottish lords, who returned to Edinburgh with the King as their prisoner, and the army disbanded itself. Before retiring, the English captured Berwick, which remained an English possession ever afterwards. Albany returned to Scotland, and was temporarily reconciled to his brother; but the Scottish nobles distrusted him, and he again took refuge in England.

12. **Death of Edward: 1483.**—To Edward's great annoyance, the marriage agreed on at the Treaty of Pecquigny was frustrated by the betrothal of the Dauphin to Margaret of Burgundy. Edward prepared for war; but a slight illness working on his frame, which was worn out by debauchery, suddenly assumed a fatal character. He died in his forty-first year, and was buried at Windsor. The children who survived him were—Edward, his successor; Richard, Duke of York; and five daughters, of whom the eldest, Elizabeth, was afterwards married to Henry VII.

13. Character of Edward IV.—Edward was handsome and affable, a skilful general, and a man of the greatest personal courage; but these are the only good qualities that can be ascribed to him. He was cruel, vindictive, and rapacious, and in his later years he gave himself to self-indulgence, which in fact shortened his life. He was a bad king and a bad man.

14. The Constitution.—The great increase in the power of the Crown during this reign is shown in the fact that there were long intervals during which no Parliament was held. There was no meeting between 1468 and 1471; and again there was no meeting between 1475 and 1483, excepting once for six weeks in 1478. Another proof of the power of the Crown was the exercise of the *suspending power*, by which the King suspended the operation of any statute; and of the *dispensing power*, by which the King could exempt a particular person from the operation of a statute. Edward also adopted arbitrary methods of raising money—for example, by *benevolences*, or free gifts, and by exacting penalties for breaches of obsolete laws.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1461. Edward's victory at Towton.
 1464. Yorkist victories at Hedgley Moor and Hexham.
 1464. Henry avows his marriage with Elizabeth Woodville.
 1469. Warwick and Clarence joined the Lancastrians.
 1469. Lancastrian victory at Edgecote.

1470. Restoration of Henry VI.
 1471. Edward's victory at Barnet.
 1471. Edward's victory at Tewkesbury.
 1471. Death of Prince Edward.
 1471. Death of Henry VI.
 1473. "Benevolences" first raised.
 1478. Death of the Duke of Clarence.
 1478. Introduction of Printing into England.

GREAT EVENTS.

George Neville, Bishop of Winchester, Warwick's brother; Chancellor.
 Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, killed at Barnet, 1471.
 Henry Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, Lancastrian leader; executed after Hexham, 1464.
 John Neville, Lord Montague, Warwick's brother, killed at Barnet, 1471.
 Richard Woodville, Earl Rivers, father of the Queen, executed 1469.
 Sir John Woodville, brother of the Queen, executed 1469.

Edward Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, brother of Henry, executed after Tewkesbury, 1471.
 Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, Edward's brother-in-law.
 Anthony Woodville, Earl Rivers, brother of the Queen.
 George, Duke of Clarence, the King's brother, married to Isabella Neville; murdered 1478.
 William Caxton, first English printer.
 Alexander Stuart, Duke of Albany, brother of James III. of Scotland; made alliance with the English.

Abroad.—In 1483, Charles VIII. became King of France.

REIGNS OF EDWARD V.¹ AND RICHARD III. (YORK).

1483-1485.

CHAPTER XXXII.—FALL OF THE HOUSE OF YORK.

1. **The Regency: 1483.**—The death of Edward was followed by a struggle for power between the Queen-mother and the Duke of Gloucester—uncle of the young King—who was head of the Council. Elizabeth had the support of the Woodvilles; her brother Anthony, Earl Rivers, governor of Edward; her brother, Sir Richard Woodville; her sons the Marquis of Dorset and Sir Richard Grey. Gloucester's chief supporters were the Duke of Buckingham² and Lord Hastings.³ As Edward was only twelve years of age, a Regency was necessary. The Queen-mother claimed the office; but Gloucester set her aside and assumed it himself. The young King was at Ludlow when his father died. He now rode toward London, guarded by Rivers, Grey, and Sir Thomas Vaughan. At Stony-Stratford, near Northampton, they were met by Gloucester and Buckingham. The whole of the King's party was seized. Rivers and Grey were sent as prisoners to Pontefract. The boy-King was led to London, and was sent to live in the Tower (May 4). The Queen-mother, with her second son, Richard, Duke of York, took sanctuary at Westminster. No Parliament was called; but a great Council was held in

¹ *Edward V.*, elder son of Edward IV. Reigned eleven weeks. ampton, 1460. (See p. 221.)

² *Duke of Buckingham*, Henry Stafford, son of Humphrey, who was killed at North-

³ *Lord Hastings*, William, a favourite of Edward IV., who conferred on him vast estates forfeited by Lancastrians.

London, comprising prelates, nobles, and chief citizens, and by them Gloucester was acknowledged as Protector of the realm; while Buckingham was appointed Chief-Justice and Chamberlain (May 14).

2. Destruction of the Woodvilles.—Gloucester's next step was to remove those nobles who were faithful to the cause of the young Edward. Of these, Earl Rivers and Sir Richard Grey were the most prominent. The former, a maternal uncle of the King, was distinguished as the patron of Caxton, and the translator of the first book printed in England, "The Sayings of the Philosophers." Grey was the King's half-brother. Rivers, Grey, and Sir Thomas Vaughan were executed at Pontefract on the same day. About the same time, Gloucester grew suspicious of Lord Hastings, though it is not known on what ground. He ordered him to be arrested in the council-room as the accomplice of the Queen and Jane Shore, whom Gloucester charged with witchcraft; and he was at once beheaded on a block of wood that lay in the chapel-yard of the Tower.

3. Gloucester claims the Throne.—This done, the Queen-mother was induced to allow the young Duke of York to join his brother in the Tower (June 16). On the next Sunday, a preacher named Shaw preached a sermon at Paul's Cross, in which he declared Edward the Fourth's marriage to have been unlawful, and consequently his children to be illegitimate; and a day or two later Buckingham addressed the citizens at the Guildhall to the same effect. The people, who had detested the arbitrary government of Edward, were willing to listen to the more liberal promises of his brother. The Lords spiritual and temporal and the Commons then offered the crown to Richard. With feigned reluctance he accepted it, and the reign of Edward V. was at an end (June 25).

4. Accession of Richard III.¹: 1483.—The new King began his reign by endeavouring to conciliate enemies and to secure popular favour. He raised the rank of many nobles; he re-

¹ *Richard III.*, fourth son of Richard, Duke of York, and brother of Edward IV. Born 1450. Married Anne, daughter of the Earl of Warwick, and widow of Prince Edward, son of Henry VI. Issue, one son, who died in 1484. Reigned 2 years.

mitted forfeitures; and he distributed lavishly the hoards of his late brother. Lord Howard was created Duke of Norfolk; Buckingham was appointed Lord High Constable. By these means he gathered a band of adherents around his throne; and he aroused in the nation hopes of a more liberal policy. Then, making a progress through the country—for the purpose, as he said, of securing the peace of England, and the pure administration of justice—he spent some time at York, where he knighted his son Edward with great pomp (September).

5. **Disappearance of the Princes.**—During Richard's absence, the two princes in the Tower mysteriously disappeared. According to Sir Thomas More (who, however, wrote with Tudor bias), James Tyrrel, Richard's master of the horse, was sent from Warwick to London with a royal letter charging Brackenbury, the governor of the Tower, to give up the keys of the fortress for twenty-four hours. The dethroned Edward and his brother were confined there; and in the dead of night Forrest and Dighton, hired assassins, smothered the sleeping boys with the bed-clothes, showed the corpses to Tyrrel, and then buried them at the foot of a staircase.¹

6. **Plots against Richard.**—This story, whether true or false, was believed at the time, and at once turned popular feeling against Richard. There had always existed a strong party unfavourable to him—prominent in which were John Morton, Bishop of Ely, and Richard Fox, Bishop of Exeter, two able churchmen. Now that the sons of Edward IV. had disappeared, they proposed a union of the Houses of York and Lancaster by a marriage between Henry, Earl of Richmond, and Elizabeth of York. Henry was the great-great-grandson of John of Gaunt through his mother, Margaret Beaufort; Elizabeth was the eldest daughter of Edward IV.

7. **Death of Buckingham.**—Dangers gathered thickly around the King. His former friends began to forsake him—a sign that in their opinion he was losing ground. Even Buckingham

¹ This story is supposed to have received confirmation from the discovery in 1674 of the remains to be buried in Westminster Abbey.

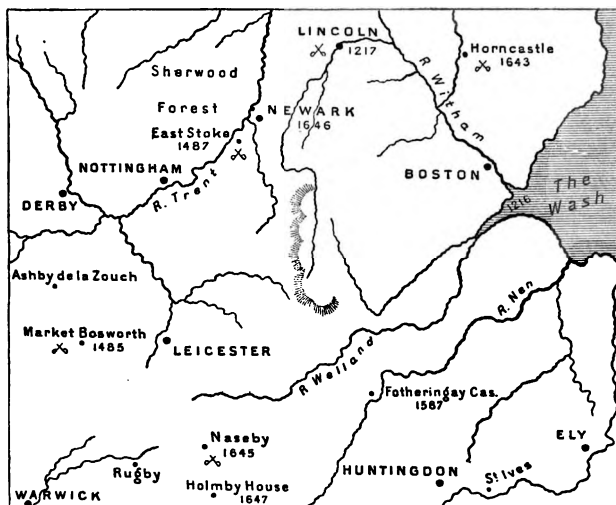
joined the malcontents. Risings took place in several places on the same day (October 18, 1483). Buckingham, who had drawn sword at Brecknock, was hindered by a flood in the Severn from joining his confederates, and his army of Welshmen melted away. Fleeing in disguise to the house of a retainer, he was betrayed—some say by his host—and was beheaded in the market-place of Salisbury (November 2). The Earl of Richmond attempted to land on the coast of Dorsetshire; but a storm scattered his ships, and he retired to Normandy.

8. Meeting of Parliament: 1484.—In order to make himself a constitutional sovereign, Richard held a Parliament at Westminster in January 1484. It declared the marriage of Edward IV. with Elizabeth Woodville to have been a nullity, and revoked all grants made to her, describing her as "Elizabeth, late wife of Sir John Grey." By this means the Parliament pronounced Richard to be no usurper, but the lawful King. Another statute attainted the Earl of Richmond; and in February, both Houses of Parliament took an oath to support the succession to the throne of Edward, Prince of Wales. This Parliament passed several important statutes, some of which were designed to remove abuses in the administration of justice. Perhaps the most popular of them was that which ordained that "benevolences" should be annulled for ever.

9. Richard's Schemes.—The proposed marriage of Richmond and Elizabeth was dreaded by the King, and caused him to redouble his efforts. He sought to unite the Princess to his own son, but the latter suddenly died. He conceived the idea of marrying his niece himself, and incurred the suspicion of having poisoned his wife, Anne, for that purpose. But Ratcliffe and Catesby, his chief counsellors, dissuaded him from the unnatural union. Rumours of the King's intention, however, reached Richmond, and caused him to hasten his preparations.

10. Battle of Bosworth: 1485.—Now that Richard's power seemed tottering, the fidelity of his adherents began to fail. Lord Stanley, who had married the Lady Margaret, Richmond's mother, was the object of his greatest suspicion. Soon came the news that Richmond, with 3,000 troops, was at the mouth

of the Seine. Richard took his station at Nottingham, as the centre of the kingdom. Horsemen were in the saddle on all the chief roads, to bring the earliest tidings of his rival's approach. On the 7th of August Richmond landed at Milford Haven. On the 22nd the armies met at Market Bosworth in



Leicestershire, the King's weakened by numerous desertions. Before the battle, Lord Stanley had declined to join the King, and had withdrawn with 5,000 men; and his brother, Sir William Stanley, openly joined Richmond. Now, in the height of the battle, Lord Stanley also joined Richmond's army, and that decided the day. Richard was slain in the act of aiming a desperate blow at Richmond. The crown, which he had worn on the battle-field, was found in a hawthorn bush close by, and was placed by Lord Stanley on the victor's head. The body of Richard, carried to Leicester on a horse, was there buried in the church of the Greyfriars.

11. **Character of Richard III.**—The character of this King has suffered seriously from the fact that it was first drawn by partisans of his successful rival. They have described him

as a monster of vice and crime, and as an incapable King. The authentic records of his reign show him to have been an able and vigorous ruler and a brave soldier. Of the crimes popularly laid to his charge, and ascribed to him by Bacon and Shakespeare on the authority of prejudiced chroniclers, no valid evidence has ever been adduced. His fall was due rather to the treachery of the nobles than to the opposition of the people.

12. Constitution.—The fact that Richard III. claimed the crown on grounds of hereditary right shows how fully that principle of succession was established. On the other hand, it was fully recognized that the power of deciding between rival claims rested with Parliament. That body had been very much in abeyance during the later years of Edward IV. Richard's necessities forced him to revive it. He professed to accept his crown from "the Lords spiritual and temporal and the Commons of the land;" and he called a regular Parliament in January 1484, which passed several important statutes, as already mentioned. Benevolences were pronounced illegal; but they were revived in the next reign. It is noteworthy that the statutes of that Parliament were the first that were written in English, and were also the first that were printed.

CHIEF EVENTS.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1483. Gloucester Regent and Protector. | 1483. Disappearance of the two princes in the Tower. |
| 1483. King Edward sent to the Tower (May 4). | 1483. Execution of Buckingham (Nov. 2). |
| 1483. Execution of Rivers, Grey, Vaughan, and Hastings. | 1484. Richard declared lawful King by Parliament. |
| 1483. Duke of York sent to the Tower (June 16). | 1485. Richmond's invasion. |
| 1483. Gloucester's accession as Richard III. (June 25). | 1485. Richard defeated and slain at Bosworth. |

GREAT NAMES.

- | | |
|---|---|
| Elizabeth Woodville, the Queen-mother. | Sir Thomas Vaughan, supporter of Edward. |
| Richard, Duke of Gloucester, uncle of Edward V. | Richard, Duke of York, Edward's brother. |
| Anthony, Earl Rivers, Elizabeth's brother. | Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, descendant of John of Gaunt; claimant of the throne. |
| Sir Richard Woodville, Elizabeth's brother. | John Morton, Bishop of Ely, adherent of Richmond. |
| Marquis of Dorset, Elizabeth's son by first marriage. | Richard Fox, Bishop of Exeter, adherent of Richmond. |
| Sir Richard Grey, Elizabeth's son by first marriage. | Elizabeth of York, eldest daughter of Edward IV. |
| Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, Yorkist; executed 1483. | Lord Stanley, husband of Richmond's mother. |
| William, Lord Hastings, Yorkist; executed 1483. | Sir William Stanley, Lord Stanley's brother, adherent of Richmond. |

REIGN OF HENRY VII.¹ (TUDOR).

1485-1509.

CHAPTER XXXIII.—AN UNSTABLE THRONE.

1. **Accession of Henry VII.: 1485.**—Henry VII., the first King of the Tudor dynasty, was not without rivals. There was living at Sheriff-Hutton, in Yorkshire, a boy of fifteen—Edward, Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence. There was also John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln—son of Elizabeth, eldest sister of Edward IV.—who had been appointed heir by Richard III. after the death of his son. Warwick was at once transferred to the Tower of London. Lincoln, having paid homage to the new King, remained at liberty.

2. **Union of the Roses: 1486.**—The King's public entry into London, and his coronation, were delayed by a plague called "the sweating sickness." When these ceremonies were at last completed, he called a Parliament (November 1485), which confirmed his title to the throne by right of inheritance. It also reversed the attainders of Henry V. and other Lancastrians, and attainted the leading supporters of Richard, who by a legal fiction were represented as rebels against King Henry, their lawful sovereign. To secure his possession of the crown, and at the same time to quell for ever the hostility of the rival Roses, he married Elizabeth of York, the daughter of Edward IV. (January 18, 1486). His chief confidence was given to Morton and Fox, who had been faithful to him in his exile. He made Morton Archbishop of Canterbury, and a few years

¹ *Henry VII.*, great-great-grandson of Elizabeth of York. Issue, three sons and John of Gaunt. Born 1456. Married four daughters. Reigned 24 years.

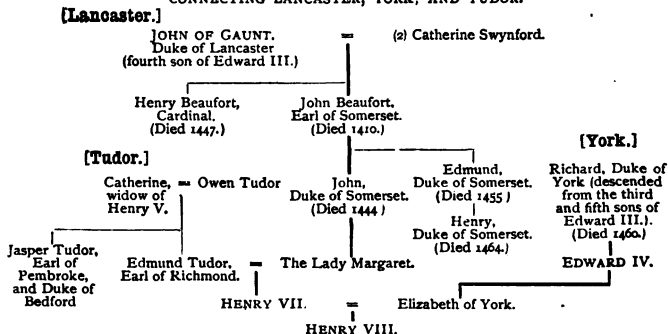
later Fox became Bishop of Durham, and he ultimately succeeded to the see of Winchester.

3. **Lord Lovel's Rising: 1486.**—Notwithstanding all his precautions, Henry's throne was, during the first fifteen years of his reign, in a dangerous position. Plot after plot arose to disturb his tranquillity. He was at Lincoln, on a progress through the north, when news reached him of a rising in Yorkshire under Lord Lovel, who had been Lord High Constable to Richard III. It was soon suppressed; but Lord Lovel escaped to the court of Margaret, Duchess-Dowager of Burgundy, a sister of Edward IV., who appears oftener than once during this reign as the patron of pretenders to the English throne. From Yorkshire the King passed to Bristol, where he did much good, by encouraging the citizens to build ships, and to revive their trade.

4. **Lambert Simnel's Rising: 1487.**—Ireland was to Henry a source of weakness and danger. Fitzgerald, Earl of Kildare, who had succeeded in making the lord-deputyship practically hereditary in his family, was a keen Yorkist; while the rival whom he had displaced, Butler, Earl of Ormond, was a Lancastrian. So powerful was Kildare that Henry, when he came to the throne, did not venture to remove him from the lord-deputyship, though he made his own uncle Jasper Tudor, Duke of Bedford, Lieutenant. Kildare made the bold resolution

GENEALOGICAL TREE

CONNECTING LANCASTER, YORK, AND TUDOR.



of attacking Henry in England. His resolve was quickened by the appearance in Dublin of an Oxford priest named Simon, with a boy whom he called Edward, Earl of Warwick, who he alleged had escaped from the Tower of London. He was really a tradesman's son, by name Lambert Simnel; but Kildare resolved to use him as the figure-head of his movement. He therefore received the boy with all honour, as a prince of Yorkist blood; and the pretender was proclaimed King with the title of Edward VI. Henry, in alarm, called the peers and prelates around him; and by their advice the real Warwick was led, in view of the citizens, from the Tower to St. Paul's, and thence to the Palace of Shene.¹ At the same time Elizabeth, the Queen-Dowager, was arrested and imprisoned in the Convent of Bermondsey.²

5. **Battle of Stoke: 1487.**—A new source of alarm was the desertion of the Earl of Lincoln. Aided by his aunt, the Duchess of Burgundy, he and Lord Lovel joined Simnel at Dublin with 2,000 German troops. The impostor was crowned, and a Parliament was called in his name. While Henry was at Kenilworth,³ he heard that Lincoln, Lovel, and Simnel had landed near Furness in Lancashire, with the German troops and an Irish force, and were marching to surprise him. Contrary to their expectations, very few Englishmen joined them. Henry quickly mustered a considerable army and marched northward. So ill defined were the roads that the King's army lost its way between Nottingham and Newark. The rebels came upon them at Stoke,⁴ but the attack was speedily repulsed (June 16). Lincoln died on the field. Lovel,⁵ who had joined the enterprise, was never heard of from that day. Simon and Simnel surrendered. The former died in prison;

¹ *Shene*, now Richmond, 12 miles south-west of London.

² *Bermondsey*, 1½ mile south-east of London.

³ *Kenilworth*, five miles north of Warwick. The famous castle, now an ivied ruin, was begun in Henry the First's time. There the Earl of Leicester entertained Queen Elizabeth with great magnificence

in 1575. In this connection, read Sir Walter Scott's "*Kenilworth*."

⁴ *Stoke*, or East Stoke, is a village 4 miles south-west of Newark, in Nottinghamshire. (See Map, p. 235.)

⁵ *Lovel*. A skeleton discovered some centuries later in an underground chamber at his seat in Oxfordshire is believed to have been that of the rebel lord.

the latter was employed in the royal kitchen as a turnspit, but was afterwards raised to the post of falconer. Henry had hitherto postponed the coronation of his Queen, being jealous of her better title. He now yielded to the popular wish, and had her crowned with great pomp (November 25).

6. **The Star Chamber Court: 1486.**—Henry's second Parliament established a new court for the trial of offenders who were too powerful to be reached by the ordinary or local courts of justice. As it met in the Star Chamber,¹ it came to be known as the Star Chamber Court. It consisted of the Chancellor, the Treasurer, the Keeper of the Privy Seal, one bishop, one temporal peer, and the two chief judges. The chief purpose of the court was to suppress *maintenance* and *livery*. Maintenance was the custom under which a poor suitor received from a rich noble aid in money with which to carry on his lawsuit, on condition that, if the verdict were favourable, the larger share of the damages would go to the noble "maintainer." The system led to the corruption of justice and to other abuses. Livery was the keeping by nobles of a number of liveried retainers to fight in their quarrels. The court could, however, deal with all kinds of offences, both civil and criminal, and in fact extended and legalized a power which the King's Council had always exercised. Though the Star Chamber Court afterwards had an evil reputation, it exercised its powers at this time for the protection of the weak and poor against wealthy tyrants who defied the provincial courts.

7. **Affairs of Brittany.**—The ruling principle of Henry's foreign policy was to maintain peace. Only once was he led into a foreign war. When Francis, Duke of Brittany, died, leaving his coronet to his daughter Anne, a girl of twelve, the French King claimed the dukedom. By the advice of Morton, now the Chancellor, Henry, who had spent a great part of his

Scotland.—In 1488, King James III. was defeated by his insurgent nobles at Sauchieburn (near Stirling), and was slain after the battle. His son James IV. succeeded.

¹ *Star Chamber.* So called from the decorations of the room, or perhaps from Jewish bonds, called *starres*, having formerly been kept there.

exile in Brittany, formed a league with Maximilian, King of the Romans, and Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, for the protection of Brittany. The raising of taxes to equip an army excited a revolt in the north of England; but it was promptly suppressed by the Earl of Surrey, and the leaders suffered death at York (1488). An English force landed in Brittany in 1489, but effected nothing.

8. **Treaty of Etaples: 1492.**—Anne of Brittany was betrothed to Maximilian, King of the Romans, with the consent of Henry. Charles of France, however, forced the Princess into a marriage with himself (1491), and the King of England, yielding to the demands of his own people, then resolved on war. Parliament voted supplies to the King, but he chiefly relied on the old and arbitrary expedient of *benevolences*. By a decree called “Morton’s fork,” the Chancellor contrived to extort money both from rich and from poor—from the former, because their fine clothing showed their wealth; from the latter, because mean apparel showed their parsimony. At last, in October 1492, Henry landed in France and laid siege to Boulogne. The invasion ended as did that of Edward IV. The French King knew Henry’s love of money, and ere the siege had lasted many days, he secured the Treaty of Etaples,¹ by promising a large sum. Henry received from Charles £149,000; and retained, besides, all the money he had extorted from his own subjects for the war. This caused much discontent among the people, while the nobles murmured that they had been balked of their conquest of France, in anticipation of which many of them had mortgaged their estates. From this time Brittany was permanently attached to the French crown.

Abroad.—In 1492, the rule of Lorenzo de Medici (“The Magnificent,” and “Father of Letters”) came to an end in Florence. His son Giovanni became Pope Leo X., who founded St. Peter’s at Rome, and was the opponent of Luther.

In 1492, Granada was taken by Ferdinand after a siege of two years, and the power of the Moors in Spain was completely overthrown.

¹ *Etaples*, on the estuary of the Canche; 15 miles south of Boulogne.

CHAPTER XXXIV.—A NEW PRETENDER.

1. **Perkin Warbeck: 1492, 1493.**—Henry's enemies took advantage of the unpopularity which the failure of his French expedition had brought on him to renew their attacks on his throne. They once more fixed on Ireland as the scene of their operations, and they found a new pretender in a young man who gave himself out to be Richard, Duke of York, the younger brother of Edward V. Henry and his ministers declared him to be an impostor, by name Perkin Warbeck,¹ a native of Tournay in Flanders. When he appeared in Ireland in 1492, he received many supporters—among them the Earl of Kildare, the Lord-Deputy, whom Henry now felt himself strong enough to dismiss. Charles of France, then at war with Henry, invited Warbeck to his court, where he was joined by many English gentlemen. When Charles made peace with Henry (1493), Warbeck was obliged to quit France, and he went to Burgundy, where the Duchess Margaret professed to recognize him as her nephew.

2. **Poyning's Law in Ireland: 1494.**—Henry saw the necessity of securing more settled and regular government in Ireland. He found a suitable instrument in Sir Edward Poyning, the new Lord-Deputy. In 1494, he passed a measure known as Poyning's Law, which made the English supremacy in Ireland a reality, and gave the English sovereigns a firm hold on the

Abroad.—In 1493, Maximilian, King of the Romans, succeeded his father, Frederick III., as Emperor. His wife was Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold. (See Genealogical Tree, p. 199.)

In 1494, Charles VIII. of France, claiming the kingdom of Naples, invaded Italy, overran Tuscany, and penetrated to Rome and Naples. Venice, Milan, the Emperor, and the Pope formed a league against him, drove him out of Italy, and stripped him of his conquests.

Scotland.—In 1494 the University of Aberdeen was founded by Bishop Elphinstone.

¹ *Perkin Warbeck.* Some writers believe him to have been a natural son of Edward IV.; and some, the real Duke of York. The case is as yet an unsolved mystery. Two things are certain: he was treated by

Henry as a person of rank, and not as a common impostor; and very little reliance can be placed either on Henry's statements regarding him or on his own alleged "confession."

island. It provided that the Irish Parliament should not meet without the King being officially informed of the fact; and that no bill should be introduced into it until it had first received the assent of the King and his Council.

3. Warbeck in Ireland: 1495.—The Yorkists in England sent Sir Robert Clifford privately to Flanders as their agent, in order to assure themselves of the genuineness of Warbeck's claim. When Clifford returned to England in the beginning of 1495, he betrayed the trust of the Yorkists, and consequently several of them were charged with treason and were executed. Among them was Sir William Stanley, who had saved the King's life at Bosworth, and whose brother, Lord Stanley, had crowned Henry on the field. The effect of the new law in Ireland was seen when Warbeck returned to the island in 1495. He laid siege to Waterford, but had to abandon it; and having failed to secure the support of the people, he passed to Scotland in search of aid. In the following year, Kildare was reappointed Lord-Deputy.

4. The Great Intercourse: 1496.—Henry saw the necessity of strengthening his position by foreign alliances. In February 1496, he entered into a commercial treaty, known as "the Great Intercourse," with the Archduke Philip, which had for its ostensible object the encouragement of commerce between the two countries, but which also provided that neither should harbour the other's enemies—in other words, that Philip should not give shelter to Warbeck in Flanders.

5. Warbeck's Failure and Death.—James IV. of Scotland not only acknowledged the pretender, and allowed him to marry a daughter of the Earl of Huntly, but he also raised an army and pillaged the northern counties of England (October 1496). This invasion gave Henry an excuse for levying new taxes. The Cornish men revolted, and marched to a point within sight of London; but they were soon dispersed, and their leaders were

Abroad.—In 1497, Vasco de Gâma discovered the sea-route to India by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, or Cape of Storms, as it had previously been called. He established the first European settlement in India at Cochin, in 1502.

executed. Nevertheless, the spirit of discontent still lingered in Cornwall, and it encouraged Warbeck to try his fortune there. He had passed over from Scotland to Ireland in July 1497. In September he landed in Cornwall, and at Bodmin he unfurled his standard as "Richard IV." He besieged Exeter with 6,000 men; but the vigorous resistance offered by the citizens forced him to retreat. At Taunton he secretly left his army and fled to the Sanctuary of Beaulieu in Hampshire. Having been induced to throw himself on the King's mercy, he was taken to London as a prisoner (October). Eight months later he escaped, but was recaptured, and was then committed to the Tower, where lay the unfortunate Earl of Warwick. The prisoners became friends. They spent many months in devising a plan for escape; but they were detected, and both were executed (November 1499). Warbeck's wife was appointed to an honourable post as attendant on the Queen, and was known in the English Court as "The White Rose,"—a name once borne by her husband. The death of Warwick made Edmund de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, the head of the Yorkist party. Suspecting his life to be in danger, he went abroad with his brother Richard. The King made many attempts to get possession of him, but he did not succeed till 1506, when an accident threw the Archduke Philip into Henry's hands. Under a new treaty then framed, Suffolk was surrendered on condition that his life should be spared.

6. The Stewart Marriage: 1503.—Henry, now securely seated on the throne, devoted his attention to the amassing of money and the advancement of his foreign influence by mar-

Abroad.—In 1498, Girolamo Savonarola, a political and religious reformer, was executed at Florence.

In 1499, Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine navigator, landed on the mainland of South America, and gave his name to the continent,—America.

In 1501, Louis XII. of France and Ferdinand of Sicily (and Aragon) seized Naples and divided it between them. Sicily had been seized by the Spaniards in 1282, and Naples in 1435. In 1503, the French were driven out of Naples, and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies was annexed to the crown of Aragon by Ferdinand. The French were utterly routed at the Garigliano by Gonzalvo de Cordova, "the Great Captain" (Dec. 27, 1503).

riages. The old enmity between England and Scotland, which was fiercest in the Border counties, was set at rest for a time by a marriage (August 1503) between the Scottish Stewart King, James IV., and Margaret, Henry's eldest daughter. This marriage led to the union of the English and Scottish crowns one hundred years later.

7. **Catherine of Aragon.**—France and Spain were then the leading powers on the Continent. To check the influence of France, Henry formed a Spanish alliance. He had in 1501 married his eldest son, Arthur, to Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. The bridegroom, a gentle and learned prince, lived only six months after the union; and his brother Henry (afterwards Henry VIII.) was, with the Pope's consent, contracted to the young widow—so unwilling was the King either to lose her dowry or to have his favourite foreign policy frustrated. The Queen, Elizabeth of York, died in 1503, after which the King made great efforts to secure a rich second wife; but all his schemes were unavailing.

8. **Empson and Dudley.**—The chief instruments of Henry's rapacity in his later years were Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley. They were both lawyers; and so great was the King's influence that, while his oppressions were at their height, Dudley was chosen Speaker of the Commons (1504). A single occurrence will show the nature of the extortions which were practised. When leaving the mansion of the Earl of Oxford, whom he had visited, the King passed through two lines of men, splendidly equipped. "My lord," he said to the Earl, "these are of course your servants?" "No, your Majesty; these are my retainers, assembled to do you honour." The King, professing to be startled, said, "I thank you, my lord, for your good cheer, but I cannot have my laws broken in my sight." He referred to the law abolishing "livery;" and Oxford was fined £10,000 for his anxiety to do honour to royalty.

Abroad.—In 1508, the League of Cambray was formed by Pope Julius II., the French, the Spaniards, and the Emperor, against Venice. In 1511, the Pope formed with the Spaniards and the Venetians the "Holy League" against the French, and drove them out of Italy.

9. **Death of the King: 1509.**—Henry died in the spring of 1509. His health gave way under repeated attacks of gout, and consumption at length set in. In his dying hours he ordered that those whom he had injured should be recompensed.

10. **Character of Henry VII.**—The first Tudor King was vindictive, ungrateful, treacherous, and rapacious. He showed his jealousy of the House of York in his unjust treatment of its adherents—even of his wife's sisters. His ingratitude to old friends was shown in the execution of Sir William Stanley. His rapacity lay at the root of his treachery and meanness, as of the other evil aspects of his character. He entrapped his subjects into breaches of the law in order that he might demand compensation. He allowed false witnesses and corrupt jurors to be used in his interest. It has been said of him, in connection with his abortive invasion of France in 1492, that he made money from his subjects by the war and from his enemies by the peace.

11. **The Constitution.**—Henry's reign was a period of transition from feudal to absolute monarchy in England. The feudal aristocracy had been crushed, and as the Commons were not yet strong enough to assert their independence, the Crown became supreme. The most important constitutional incident of the time was the establishment of the Court of Star Chamber in the circumstances already referred to. Several important statutes were passed during the reign. One of these gave power, under certain conditions, to alienate entailed lands (1489). Henry's object in passing this law was to lessen the power of the nobles; but it also exalted the commoners by making them landowners. Another important statute gave protection to a subject who had obeyed or served under a king who held the throne for the time being.

12. **Notes of Progress.**—In 1491, true standard weights and measures, made of brass, were ordered by Parliament to be sent by the royal treasurer to every city and borough. In 1488, there was built, by the King's order, a war-ship called

Scotland.—In 1509, the art of printing was introduced.

the *Great Harry*. It was of one thousand tons burden, had two decks, and cost £14,000. This was the age of maritime adventure and discovery. On the 12th of October 1492, Columbus discovered the Bahama Islands, and proved the existence of the New World. An accident probably prevented England from sharing in the glory of the discovery. Having been refused assistance in Spain, Columbus had sent his brother Bartholomew to England, to obtain ships from Henry. Bartholomew, who brought with him maps and charts, then first seen in England, was on his way back to invite Christopher to the English Court, when he was seized by pirates. Meanwhile Christopher had obtained Spanish ships, and had begun his momentous voyage. The credit, however, of discovering the mainland of America is due to English enterprise. Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, sent by Henry from Bristol, touched at Labrador in 1497, and sailed southward to Florida. These discoveries, as well as those of Vasco de Gâma and Amerigo Vespucci, gave a great impetus to commerce and colonization in the next century.

CHIEF EVENTS.

1485. Henry's title confirmed by Parliament.
 1486. Marriage of Henry and Elizabeth of York.
 1486. Lord Lovel's rising.
 1486. Star Chamber Court established.
 1487. Lambert Simnel's rising.
 1487. Defeat of the rebels at Stoke.
 1487. Coronation of Queen Elizabeth.
 1492. Treaty of Etaples.
 1492. Appearance of Perkin Warbeck.

1494. Poyning's Law in Ireland.
 1496. The Great Intercourse.
 1497. Warbeck a prisoner.
 1499. Execution of Warbeck and Warwick.
 1502. Prince Henry contracted to Catherine of Aragon.
 1503. The Stewart marriage.
 1504. Extortions of Empson and Dudley.
 1509. Death of Henry VII.

GREAT NAMES.

Edward, Earl of Warwick, son of Clarence, a prisoner; executed 1499.
 John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, son of Elizabeth, sister of Edward IV., and the Duke of Suffolk; killed at Stoke 1487.
 John Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Chancellor; afterwards Cardinal.
 Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV., Henry's Queen.
 Lord Lovel, adherent of Richard III. and of Simnel; disappeared after Stoke.
 Richard Fox, Bishop of Durham, afterwards of Winchester.
 Lambert Simnel, pretended to be Warwick; defeated at Stoke.
 Perkin Warbeck, pretended to be Richard, Duke

of York, brother of Edward V.; executed 1499.
 Margaret, sister of Edward IV., wife of Charles the Bold of Burgundy.
 Sir Edward Poyning, Lord-Deputy in Ireland.
 Sir William Stanley; executed 1495.
 Edmund de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, brother of Earl of Lincoln, head of the Yorkists.
 James IV. of Scotland, married Margaret, the King's daughter.
 Catherine of Aragon, married to Prince Arthur; betrothed to Prince Henry.
 Richard Empson, a lawyer, instrument of Henry's extortion.
 Edmund Dudley, a lawyer, Speaker of the House of Commons.

CHAPTER XXXV.—THE STATE OF SOCIETY :

FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. **Extinction of Villenage.**—The great social feature of the period was the extinction of Villenage or compulsory service. The Norman Conquest had changed the masters without freeing the servants. The English ceorl became the Norman villein. But about the time of Henry II. a change began. During three centuries it went on slowly—so slowly, indeed, that it was scarcely remarked by writers of the time. The revolt of the peasants in 1381 gave a great blow to villenage, though it was partially revived by the Statutes of Labourers. It is plain, from these statutes, that the custom of free labour for wages had begun. The civil war, by breaking the power of the ruling class, aided the movement, and the opening of the Tudor period saw villenage abolished in England for ever. Not only was free labour the rule to which there were few exceptions, but the custom of tilling land for rent in money had also become common. The labourers were now independent; but they were also self-dependent, and many of them failed to earn a living. Hence there was an increase of poverty, and consequently of idleness, vagabondage, begging, and crime.

2. **Population.**—The population of England, which in 1377 had been only 2,093,000, increased in 1483 to 4,689,000; so that it had been more than doubled in one hundred and six years—a much larger rate of increase than that of subsequent periods. The meaning of this may be realized when it is remembered that the population of the whole country in the time of Richard III. was not much greater than that now concentrated in London alone.

3. **Trade.**—Trade did not suffer from the Wars of the Roses as much as is generally supposed. Though these wars extended over thirty years, the time of active service was confined to three or four years. Between the great battles there were intervals of years, during which the business of the country went

on very much as usual. Moreover, the wars affected the upper class much more than either the lower or the middle class. The last of these classes began to rise into importance at this time, chiefly owing to changes in the conditions under which trade was carried on. The system of guilds (merchant-guilds and craft-guilds), which secured monopoly of trade, broke down when the guild rules became irksome to its own members. With freedom of trade there came competition and enterprise. Labour became a commodity which was purchased with capital. Successful merchants became wealthy, and rose in the social scale.

4. **The Land.**—The decay of feudalism made land a marketable commodity. Nobles who were in need of money found the readiest means of obtaining it in the sale of portions of their land, the purchasers of which were found among the rich merchants. Thus traders became landowners, and were sometimes ennobled; and thus a new aristocracy sprang up, composed of industrious and thrifty commoners.

5. **Architecture.**—Instead of the Norman castles already described, the nobles now began to build large manor-houses, decorated with carving and painting. The architecture of the time was highly ornate. We have splendid examples of it in the interior roofs of the Divinity School at Oxford, and of King's College Chapel, Cambridge, both of which belong to the reign of Henry VI. The roof of Henry the Seventh's Chapel in Westminster Abbey is in the same style.

6. **Mysteries and Moralities.**—Dramatic performances now took a regular shape. They were acted at first in the churches, chiefly by the clergy, and were then called Miracle Plays, or Mysteries. Although intended to teach the lower classes the history of the Bible, they seem to have been very profane. In the reign of Henry IV., a miracle play, performed in Smithfield, lasted eight days. It began with the Creation, and took in almost the whole of sacred history. About the time of Henry VI., Moral Plays came into fashion. These were a great advance on the Mysteries: the actors were laymen, and scriptural characters were not assumed, but the performers personated Mercy, Justice, Truth, and such qualities. Then

followed, in the Tudor period, the introduction of actual characters from history and social life. From the grave portions of a Moral Play came Tragedy; from the lighter, Comedy.

7. **The Renaissance.**—The reign of Henry VII. has been spoken of as the borderland between mediæval history and modern history in England. Western Europe had begun to come under the influence of the Renaissance, or revival of learning, which followed upon the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, and the consequent scattering over Europe of scholars and Greek and Latin manuscripts. The effect resembled that of the breaking of a mirror into fragments. Instead of a single reflection of the light of knowledge, there were hundreds. The dispersed scholars naturally passed first to Italy, where they were eagerly welcomed, and thence to other countries—France, Germany, and England. In most of these countries the soil had already been prepared to receive the new seed by the desire of men for intellectual freedom, and by their impatience of the trammels of mediævalism. In England, the progress of the Renaissance was retarded by the Civil War and the dynastic strife which extended over the latter half of the century; but it received a powerful impetus from the introduction of printing by Caxton in 1476. Four colleges were founded in Cambridge between 1441 and the close of the period—namely, King's, Christ's, Queen's, and Jesus' Colleges. Oxford received about the same time All Souls', Magdalen, and Lincoln Colleges, and St. Mary Magdalen Hall. Eton College was founded in 1440. Greek was taught at Oxford by Cornelius Vitelli, an Italian, in 1488, and by William Grocyn in 1491. Erasmus, the great Dutch scholar and reviver of classical learning, studied Greek at Oxford under Grocyn from 1497 till 1499. These things were to bear fruit in the next century, and even in the next reign, not only in a literary revival, but also in the reformation of religion.

SUMMARY OF THE CONSTITUTION.

I.—THE OLD ENGLISH KINGDOMS.

- 600. Æthelbert of Kent's *Code of Laws*.
- 688. Ine of Wessex's *Code of Laws*.
- 827. Egbert King of all the English States.
- 890. Alfred the Great's *Code of Laws*.
- 924. Edward the Elder, first King of England.
- 946. Edred chosen King by the Witan.
- 955. Edwy chosen King by the Witan.
- 959. Edgar chosen King by the Witan.
- 973. Edgar's *Laws* established.
- 991. Danegeld first exacted—the first general tax in England.
- 1017. Canute's division of England into **four great Earldoms**.
- 1018. The laws of Edgar renewed by the Witan.
- 1042. Edward the Confessor chosen King by the Witan.
- 1066. Harold, Godwin's son, chosen King by the Witan.
- 1066. Edgar the Ætheling chosen King by the Witan.
- 1066. William of Normandy chosen King by the Witan.

II.—THE NORMAN KINGS.

WILLIAM I.

- 1066. William I. retained the English laws, and granted a *Charter* to London.
- 1068. Malcolm III. of Scotland did homage for Cumberland.
- 1070. English estates divided among Normans under the **Feudal System**.
- 1070. Law of Englishry established, under which the English were held answerable for the death of every one unidentified.
- 1072. Malcolm III. of Scotland did homage again.
- 1064. The Danegeld revived and made permanent—increased from two shillings to six shillings per hide of land.
- 1085. The Great Council of Gloucester ordered a general survey of England. It was carried out by royal commissioners.
- 1086. **Domesday Book** was the result.
- 1086. At the Great Council of Salisbury all the landholders swore fealty to William; spiritual jurisdiction reserved to spiritual courts.

WILLIAM II.

1091. Malcolm III. of Scotland did homage to William II.
 1093. Struggle of William II. with Anselm began.
 1095. At the Great Council of Rockingham, the barons sided with Anselm. William finally gave way.

HENRY I.

1100. *Charter of Liberties* issued by Henry I.
 1103. Struggle of Henry with Anselm as to homage and investiture.
 1106. At the Great Council of London a compromise was effected: Henry gave up investiture and retained his right to homage.
 1106. The supremacy of the Crown over the barons established.
 1107. The King's Court (*Curia Regis*) organized by Roger, Bishop of Salisbury; also the Court of Exchequer.
 1107. *Itinerant* or travelling *justices* instituted by Henry I.
 1116. At the Great Council of Salisbury, homage is done to William, Henry's son.
 1126. Homage done to Matilda, his daughter: again in 1131, and 1133 on the birth of her son.

STEPHEN.

1136. *Charter* granted by Stephen at the Great Council of Oxford.

III.—THE ANGEVIN KINGS.**HENRY II.**

1154. Union of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, Poitou, Auvergne, and Guienne with the English Crown.
 1159. *Scutage* (shield-money) accepted from vassals instead of knight service.
 1163. Disappearance of Danegeld.
 1164. Struggle with Becket: *Constitutions of Clarendon* adopted.
 1166. The *Assize* (Statute) of *Clarendon* improved the administration of justice; abolished trial by compurgation; introduced Juries of Presentment; civil causes to be settled by Recognitors.
 1170. Inquiry into the conduct of sheriffs—many of them removed, and officers of the Exchequer put in their places.
 1176. The *Assize of Northampton* established six circuits with three itinerant judges in each.
 1181. The *Assize of Arms* issued, reviving the *fyrd*, or national militia.
 1188. The "Saladin tithe" levied—first tax on personal property—one-tenth on all movables.

RICHARD I.

1193. The Great Council raised 100,000 marks for Richard's ransom—by an aid of twenty shillings on every knight's fee, by a tallage on towns

and demesnes, by a hideage on lands, and by one-fourth of all movables.

1194. Archbishop Hubert Walter, the Justiciar, transferred causes from the local to the central courts, and curtailed the power of the sheriffs, who were forbidden to act as justices in their own counties. **Juries of Presentment** were appointed by four knights in each county, who were probably elected by the freeholders.
1194. The taxes in each county were assessed by representative juries. Survey of the country made.
1198. Taxes again assessed by representative juries; a second survey of the country. One of the taxes was a *carucage*, or plough-tax—a revival of Danegeld.

JOHN.

1204. Loss of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine.
1213. Tribute to the Pope of 1,000 marks a-year.
1215. The *Great Charter* signed—aids and scutages to be voted by the Great Council, with exceptions; personal liberty of freemen protected; justice to be strictly administered; prisoners to be tried without delay; the Church to be free.

HENRY III.

1246. The name **Parliament** first applied to the Great Council.
1254. **Representatives of Shires** admitted to Parliament.
1258. The *Provisions of Oxford* passed—a committee of twenty-four appointed, to reform abuses.
1258. First proclamation in English since the Conquest.
1259. *Provisions of Westminster*, embodying *Provisions of Oxford*. (Repealed 1262, 1264.)
1265. Leicester's Parliament—**representatives of Boroughs** admitted to Parliament.
1266. The *Edict of Kenilworth* maintained the royal prerogative, but bound the King to rule according to the law.
1267. The *Statute of Marlborough*, embodying provisions of Westminster. Legislation henceforth in the form of *Statutes*.

EDWARD I.

1275. *First Statute of Westminster*, regulated feudal incidents, corrected feudal abuses, regulated administration of justice, etc. The courts of justice were organized in this reign; *Curia Regis* divided into *Court of Exchequer*, *Court of Common Pleas*, and *Court of King's Bench*.
1278. *Statute of Gloucester*, improved the administration of justice, authorized the issue of writs *Quo Warranto*, inquiring into titles of lands.
1279. *First Statute of Mortmain*, or *De Religiosis*, forbade the giving of land into the "dead hand" of an ecclesiastical corporation without the King's consent.
1279. New coinage issued—all coins to be round.
1283. *Statute of Merchants*, to facilitate the recovery of debts. (Repeated in 1285, Jews being excluded.)

- 1285. *Second Statute of Westminster*, founded entail, regulated the judicial system, etc.
- 1285. *Statute of Winchester*, repressed felonies and robberies, re-enacted the *Assize of Arms* of Henry II.
- 1290. *Third Statute of Westminster*, or *Quia Emptores*, designed to check sub-infeudation.
- 1295. The *Model Parliament*—the most comprehensive and complete.
- 1297. *Confirmation of the Charters* by the King. The consent of Parliament required in the case of customs duties as well as of feudal incidents.
- 1283. Conquest of Wales.
- 1296. Temporary conquest of Scotland.
- 1306. Re-conquest of Scotland.

EDWARD II.

- 1311. The *Lords Ordainers* drew up articles of reform, which were adopted by Parliament and accepted by the King.
- 1322. Parliament, at York, revoked the Ordinances of 1311, but declared that State affairs should be regulated by Parliament, including the "commonalty of the realm."

EDWARD III.

- 1328. Independence of Scotland acknowledged by Treaty of Edinburgh.
- 1330. An Act passed restraining Purveyance: also in 1340 and 1362.
- 1333. The Commons (knights of the shire, burgesses, and citizens) began to sit in a *separate chamber*.
- 1337. The King raised money for his French war by forced loans and tallages, and by a grant of 50 per cent. on wool. He seized large quantities of wool and tin.
- 1340. *Tallages* abolished: last exacted in 1332.
- 1341. Act passed requiring nobles to be tried by their Peers in Parliament.
- 1349. About this time the Chancellor began to act as a judge in equity: thus originated the *Court of Chancery*.
- 1351. *First Statute of Labourers*, compelling workmen to accept the wages in use before the Black Death of 1349.
- 1351. *First Statute of Provisors*, forbidding the presentation of foreigners to English benefices by the Pope.
- 1352. *Statute of Treasons*, defining offences constituting treason.
- 1353. *Second Statute of Labourers*, forbidding labourers to quit the parish in which they worked. Villenage partially restored.
- 1353. *First Statute of Præmunire*, forbidding any one to carry a suit to a foreign court. John's tribute of 1,000 marks a-year to the Pope discontinued by order of Parliament.
- 1353. The *Staple Statute*, granting monopoly of staples (wool, woolfels, leather, lead, and tin) to "staple merchants" and "staple towns."
- 1362. An Act passed declaring that no subsidy on wool could be levied without the consent of Parliament. By another Act, pleadings in the law courts were to be in English.

- 1366. *Statute of Kilkenny*, to prevent the Anglo-Irish from being merged in the Irish.
- 1373. *Tonnage and poundage* (import duties), first granted to the King by Parliament.
- 1376. The **Good Parliament** protested against the abuse of power by the barons of the King's Council. Many of the ordinances of 1311 were re-enacted. First Speaker, Sir Peter de la Mare.
- 1376. First instance of **Impeachment**. Trial of Lords Latimer and Neville.

RICHARD II.

- 1379. A graduated Poll-tax was imposed: also in 1380.
- 1381. Rising of Wat Tyler, due to Poll-tax and Statutes of Labourers.
- 1386. The "Lords Appellant"—Gloucester and his friends—impeached the King's advisers.
- 1388. The **Wonderful Parliament** (or the Merciless) put several of the King's ministers to death.
- 1389. The King took the Government into his own hands.
- 1390. *Second Statute of Provisors*, re-enacted the Act of 1351.
- 1391. *Second Statute of Mortmain*, re-enacted the Act of 1279.
- 1393. *Second Statute of Præmunire*, re-enacted the Act of 1353, and mentioned the Court of Rome by name.
- 1397. The King assumed absolute powers, and disregarded Parliament.
- 1398. Parliament granted the King customs duties for life, and delegated its authority to a committee of 18 members.
- 1399. Parliament deposed Richard, and declared Henry of Lancaster King.

IV.—THE LANCASTRIAN KINGS.

HENRY IV.

- 1401. The *Statute against Heretics* passed.
- 1404. The Commons forced the King to remove four of his ministers, and to nominate his "Great and Continual Council" in Parliament: also in 1406, 1410.
- 1404. The Commons proposed to apply the temporalities of the Church to the support of the army; but, by advice of the Primate, the King refused: again in 1410.
- 1406. The Commons insisted on a proper audit of accounts.
- 1407. The Commons obtained from the King the sole right of **originating grants of money**. They also controlled the supplies.
- 1408. The King assented to a petition of the Commons demanding the removal of evil counsellors, the application of the ordinary revenue to the expenses of the King's household, and the regulation of Purveyance. The same deed recognized the privileges of Parliament—(1) freedom of debate; (2) freedom from arrest; (3) right to decide contested elections.

HENRY V.

1414. The King promised that statutes should be framed without alteration of the petitions on which they were founded.

HENRY VI.

1422. The Privy Council appointed by statute as a Council of Regency. The name "Privy Council" now came into use. After 1437, the King chose his councillors, and the Council was dissociated from Parliament.
1430. Act passed restricting the Franchise to *40s. freeholders*.
1449. The Commons again attempted to tax the clergy; the King referred the matter to Convocation, which usually granted money to the King, like the Commons.
1453. Loss of all the French possessions, except Calais.
1453. The Duke of York, while Protector, imprisoned Thorpe, the Speaker of the Commons. The House failed to release him.
1461. Henry dethroned by an informal Council. Edward of York proclaimed King.

V.—THE YORKIST KINGS.

EDWARD IV.

1461. A Bill of Attainder against Henry was passed by Parliament.
1471. The power of the Crown was absolute till the end of the reign. There were long intervals during which no Parliament met.
1473. The King raised money by means of *benevolences* or free gifts. The King also exercised the *suspending* power in the case of particular statutes, and the *dispensing* power in the case of particular persons.

EDWARD V. AND RICHARD III.

1483. Richard, while claiming the crown by hereditary right, accepted it from "the Lords Spiritual and Temporal and the Commons."
1484. Parliament passed statutes, written in English, removing abuses in the administration of justice, and abolishing *benevolences*.

HENRY VII.

1485. Parliament confirmed the King's title to the throne by inheritance.
1486. Organization of the Star Chamber Court, for the trial of rich and powerful offenders. Its object was to suppress *maintenance* and *livery*.
1489. Power was given by Parliament to alienate entailed lands.
1494. Poyning's Law in Ireland provided that the Irish Parliament should not meet without the English King being informed thereof, and that no Bill should be introduced into it until it had received the assent of the King in Council.
1495. Act passed to protect subjects who recognize the King *de facto*.
1503. Marriage of the Princess Margaret with James IV. of Scotland.
1509. Before the close of the reign, villenage was practically extinct.

SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.

Before the Norman Conquest.

ENGLISH.

EGBERT.....	802-839
ÆTHELWULF.....	839-858
ÆTHELBALD.....	858-860
ÆTHELBERT.....	860-866
ÆTHELRED I.....	866-871
ALFRED.....	871-901
EDWARD I. (the Elder).....	901-925
ÆTHELSTAN.....	925-940
EDMUND I.....	940-946
EDRED.....	946-955
EDWY.....	955-959
EDGAR.....	959-975
EDWARD II. (the Martyr).....	975-979
ÆTHELRED II.....	979-1016
EDMUND II. (Ironside).....	1016

DANISH.

CANUTE.....	1017-1035
HAROLD I.....	1035-1040
HARDICANUTE.....	1040-1042

ENGLISH.

EDWARD III. (the Con- fessor).....	1042-1066
HAROLD II.....	1066.

After the Norman Conquest.

NORMAN.

WILLIAM I.....	1066-1087
WILLIAM II.....	1087-1100
HENRY I.....	1100-1135
STEPHEN.....	1135-1154

ANGEVIN.

HENRY II.....	1154-1189
RICHARD I.....	1189-1199
JOHN.....	1199-1216
HENRY III.....	1216-1272
EDWARD I.....	1272-1307
EDWARD II.....	1307-1327
EDWARD III.....	1327-1377
RICHARD II.....	1377-1399

LANCASTRIAN.

HENRY IV.....	1399-1413
HENRY V.....	1413-1422
HENRY VI.....	1422-1461

YORKIST.

EDWARD IV.....	1461-1483
EDWARD V.....	1483
RICHARD III.....	1483-1485

TUDOR.

HENRY VII.....	1485-1509
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GLOSSARY OF HISTORICAL TERMS.

Aesking, meaning "son of the ash-tree," was derived from the surname of Eorik of Kent, Hengest's son, who was called Aesc, or "the ash-tree." The termination *-ing* is the Old English suffix meaning "son of."

Etheling, the title of the heir apparent to the Anglo-Saxon throne. It was originally given to all nobles, but latterly was restricted to the sons and brothers of the King (A.S. *æthel*, noble).

Aids. See "Incidents, Feudal."

Alienation, Fines of. See "Incidents, Feudal."

Angevin, relating to the House of Anjou.

Appellant, Lords, the nobles (with the Duke of Gloucester at their head) who *appealed*, or impeached the ministers of Richard II. (See p. 183.)

Ard-riagh, chief king; the title of the supreme monarch in Ireland in the twelfth century, when the country comprised several small kingdoms.

Aryan, from a Sanskrit word meaning "noble," or "well-born," applied to a great family of languages and nations, extending from India to the west of Europe, hence called also Indo-European. The name *Airya* was anciently applied to a wide region in Asia, including North-western India, Persia, and Armenia.

The root is supposed to exist in *Aryavarta*, a Sanskrit name of India, in *Ir-an*, a name of Persia, and in *Ar-menia*.

Assize, a name applied to statutes in early times—for example, the *Assize of Clarendon* (1166), the *Assize of Arms* (1181). The latter required every freeman to arm himself according to his rank, and to be ready to defend his king and country. It thus revived the Old English *fyrð* (q.v.).

Assizes, the sessions or sittings of a court of justice, especially of itinerant justices.

Attainder, loss of civil rights, titles, and property by a subject, in consequence of conviction for treason. Before the reign of Henry VI. this was effected by royal decree; after that, generally by *Bill of Attainder*, which went through the same course as other bills in Parliament.

Beauclerc, good scholar; a surname of Henry I.

Benefit of clergy, the right claimed by the clergy to exemption from the jurisdiction of the civil courts in certain cases; not entirely abolished till 1830.

Benevolences, or forced loans, an illegal form of taxation adopted by Edward II., Edward III., and Richard II., and made a system by Edward IV. They were sometimes

called "free-will offerings," in order to make them appear less objectionable. (See p. 227.)

Boc-land, or *book-land*, land granted to an individual by charter. It became the personal property of the thegn to whom it was granted, and who cultivated it by means of *laets*, or dependent labourers. It could not be granted by the King without the sanction of the Witan.

Bretwalda, ruler of Britain; the title given to an Anglo-Saxon king when he not only was overlord of the English, but when he claimed to rule over the whole island. (See p. 32.)

Burgh-mote, a court held in a town or burgh.

Carucage, a land-tax of five shillings on every hundred hides of land (from Lat. *caruca*, a plough).

Celibacy of the priesthood, the rule forbidding the priests to marry.

Georl (whence English *churl*), an Anglo-Saxon freeman who had a farm of his own—one hide of land.

Chancellor, ~~The~~ was next to the Justiciar, the chief officer of State under the Norman and Angevin kings. At first he was merely the chief clerk or secretary of the King's Court. When the Justiciar became a purely legal functionary, the Chancellor became the chief adviser and first minister of the King. In the time of Edward III., the Chancellor became a Judge in Equity. (See p. 177.)

Charter (Lat. *carta*, a paper), a formal declaration by the King, granting certain rights and privileges either to an individual, to a town or community, or to the nation. The legislative acts of the Norman and early Angevin kings were in the form of charters, one of the earliest on record being the *Charter of Liberties* of Henry I. (1100). The most famous was the Great Charter (*Magna Carta*

—1215), which was in effect a treaty between the King and his subjects.

Chivalry, the system of knighthood under which a man made fighting the business of his life, and went forth alone, or attended only by his squire, in search of opportunities of exercising his skill and showing his valour. (See p. 91.)

Chronicle, **The Anglo-Saxon** (or Old English), a record of public events from the invasion of Julius Cæsar, written by many different hands in succession. The entries before the English settlement are very brief. Thereafter they are fuller, and those of later times are evidently contemporary notices. The Chronicle was continued after the Conquest till 1154.

Cinque Ports, five (Fr. *cinque*) ports on the south-east coast bound to furnish the King with a certain number of ships—Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich. They were under the charge of a baron with the title of *Warden*.

Circuit, a round or district within which a travelling judge holds his courts or assizes.

Clergy. The *regular* clergy belonged to a monastic brotherhood; the *secular* clergy were not bound by monastic vows, or subject to the rules of a brotherhood.

Compurgation, the oath of an accused person as to his innocence, along with the oaths of his neighbours—from 4 to 72, according to the nature of the offence; but usually 12. A compurgator is one who helps another to clear his character.

Confirmatio Cartarum, "confirmation of the charters"—the Great Charter, and the Charter of Forests—granted by Edward I. in 1297.

Constable, **The**, one of the great officers of the King's household, origi-

nally the keeper of the royal castles. In the time of Stephen he appears as Lord High Constable, with superintendence of the royal household and its supplies.

Constitutions, the name given to the articles issued by Henry II. at Clarendon in 1164, limiting the powers of the clergy.

County, the Norman equivalent of a shire. William I. divided the great earldoms into *counties*. Three large districts retained were called *Counties*

✓ *Palatine*. (See p. 66.)

Crömllech, a large flat stone resting on two or three stone uprights.

Crusade, a holy war; a war to recover the Holy Land from the Saracens. (Fr. *croisade*, from O. Fr. *crois*, a cross; Lat. *crux*.)

Curfew (Fr. *couvre feu*—"cover fire"), a bell rung in the evening as a signal for all lights to be extinguished. This was to guard against fires when houses were built chiefly of wood.

Danegeld, a land-tax of two shillings a-year on each hide of land. At first (991) it was levied to raise money to buy off the attacks of the Danes. William I. made it a permanent tax of six shillings; but probably the hide was larger. It disappeared in Henry II.'s reign (1163), but was revived as *carucage* by Richard I.

De Heretico Comburendo (concerning the burning of heretical persons), title of the statute passed against the Lollards in 1401.

De Religiosis ("concerning religious houses" and their property), the opening words of the Statute of *Mortmain* (*q.v.*). (See p. 145.)

Dispensing power, the right assumed by the King at certain times to exempt a particular person from the operation of a statute.

Domesday Book, a statistical and

descriptive account of the counties and parishes of England, prepared by a royal commission by order of William I., 1085-86. (See p. 70, and *note*.)

Dominicans, Black Friars, a mendicant order founded by St. Dominic, introduced into England in 1220. (See p. 134.)

✓ **Druids**, from the Celtic word *druidh*, meaning a "sage."

✓ **Ealdorman**—that is, elder-man—the head of a tribe among the Anglo-Saxons; a military leader. He sat in the Shire-mote beside the Shire-reeve.

✓ **Earl**, from A.S. *eorl*, a warrior (*q.v.*); Danish *jarl*.

✓ **Edict** (Lat. *dictum*), a proclamation or order issued by the King—for example, the *Edict of Kenilworth* (1266).

Eorl, an Anglo-Saxon noble: the title included both ealdormen and the greater thegns.

✓ **Escheat**. See "Incidents, Feudal."

Estates of Scotland, the Scottish representative assembly, or parliament. The *Estates* were three—the clergy, the barons, and the burgesses. They sat in one chamber, with the Chancellor as President. The first recorded formal meeting of the Estates was in 1286. The Parliament of Cambuskenneth (Robert I.) was the first in which burgesses were included.

✓ **Exchequer, Court of**, the court in which the financial business of the country was attended to; so called from the *checkered* cloth with which the table of the court-room was covered. It consisted at first of the same barons as the King's Court, and was presided over by the King or the Justiciar.

✓ **Excommunication**, the expelling of any one from the communion of a

church, and depriving him of religious privileges.

Feudalism, the tenure of land by military service (from Lat. *feudum*, a piece of land given in *fee*, or as a reward). (See p. 64.)

Fief or fee, land held by feudal tenure.

Folk-land, land which was the common property of the tribe, and was apportioned among the hundreds and the townships. The portion given to each household was called a *hide* (q.v.).

Forest Laws, laws instituted by William I. for the protection of the royal forests—wide districts for the preservation of game. They imposed severe penalties on any one who killed a deer, a wild boar, or any beast of the chase.

Forfeiture. See "Incidents, Feudal."

Franchise, the right to vote in parliamentary elections, depending on a property qualification. The qualification was first introduced in 1430, when an Act restricted the vote to persons possessing freehold worth 40s. a year.

Franciscans, Gray Friars, a mendicant order, founded by St. Francis, introduced into England in 1224. (See p. 134.)

Franklin, a freeholder. After the Norman Conquest, English thegns who retained their lands were called franklins.

Frank-pledge, the grouping of freeholders in associations of ten men, who were to be standing securities for each other to the State. Each association was called a *tithing*, and it was bound either to produce any one of the number when required by the law, or to pay for his ill-doing.

Freehold, land held by a free tenure—that is, by knight service or *socage*; opposed to villein tenure.

Frigu, the wife of Odin, the god of war; hence *Frige-daeg*, Friday.

Fyrd, the Anglo-Saxon national militia. The ealdorman was the leader in each shire, and the fyrd comprised the *gesiths* or thegns and the freemen, and in time of war also the laets or labourers.

Gesiths, comrades; the young warriors with whom the Anglo-Saxon King surrounded himself. The ealdormen also had *gesiths*.

Great Council, the name given to the Witan after the Norman Conquest. It consisted of the King, the bishops, abbots, earls, barons, and knights, and sometimes (as at Salisbury in 1086) of all the landowners of the kingdom.

Heriot, an Anglo-Saxon tax—the war-horse and armour of a vassal claimed by his lord at his death. It arose out of the custom of the lord lending them to his vassal for life.

Hide, the portion of the tribal *folk-land* assigned to each household. It is variously estimated at from thirty to one hundred acres (from A.S. *higid*, a measure of land: not connected with *hide*, skin).

Hide-age, a tax on every hide of land; one form of hideage was the *Danegeld* (q.v.).

Homage, the submission of a vassal to a lord, using the words *Homo vester devenio*, "I become your man."

Hundred, a collection of Anglo-Saxon townships, originally including one hundred families.

Hundred-mote, the court of the hundred, consisting of the reeve and four freemen from every township, together with all the freeholders of the hundred. It settled disputes about property, and also tried criminal cases.

Impeachment, the trial of an offender at the bar of the House of Lords, by order of the House of Com-

mons: first instance, Lords Latimer and Neville, 1376. (See p. 177.)

✓ **Incidents, Feudal**, taxes paid by a vassal to his lord superior under the feudal system. The chief were—

1. *The Relief*, a fine paid by an incoming heir.

2. *The Primer Seisin*, first year's income of Crown lands.

3. *Fines of Alienation*, paid on transference of lands to strangers.

4. *An Escheat*, the reversion of a fief to the lord superior, the tenant having died heirless, or having been deprived of his land for some crime.

5. *Forfeiture*, payable on a tenant's failure to perform any part of his duty.

6. *Aids*, paid to ransom the lord, to portion his daughter, and to make his eldest son a knight.

7. *Wardship*, the right of a lord to be guardian of a minor, and to receive certain profits of the estate—

8. *Marriage*, a tax payable to the lord on the marriage of a ward. If a ward refused the consort chosen by the lord, a like sum was forfeited. —

✓ **Intercourse, The Great**, a commercial treaty between Henry VII. and the Archduke Philip (1496).

✓ **Interdict, Papal**, an order of the Pope closing all churches and forbidding religious services.

✓ **Investitures, War of**, a quarrel between the Pope and the Emperor, as to the right of the latter to "invest" bishops with the emblems of office. (See p. 68.) The dispute arose in England in the reign of Rufus, and was settled by compromise in that of Henry I.

✓ **Justiciar**, under the Norman and Angevin kings, was the chief officer of State. He was appointed by the King, and was a permanent Prime Minister. He represented the King on all occasions of State. At first his

duties were both political and legal; but as his legal duties increased, his political function disappeared, and he became the Chief Justice.

✓ **King's Court (*Curia Regis*)**, a committee or small body of advisers selected by the King from the Great Council; a court of appeal from the local courts of the barons; and a court of first instance in the case of tenants-in-chief. It was both legislative and judicial, and from it all the chief courts of the kingdom are derived—on its legislative side, Parliament; on its judicial side, the Court of King's Bench, the Court of Exchequer, the Court of Common Pleas. It was presided over by the King, and in his absence by the Justiciar.

✓ **Knight service**, the obligation of the vassal to serve his superior in the field, as the condition of tenure of land. Besides *military service*, it involved payment of *feudal incidents* (*q.v.*), such as *aids*, *reliefs*. In Henry II.'s time *scutage* (*q.v.*) relieved a knight from personal service.

✓ **Knight's fee**, the extent of land held by a knight; five hides of land, of twenty pounds' annual value. It was the foundation of the feudal system.

✓ **Laets**, labourers among the Anglo-Saxons; from A.S. *laet*, "a person enjoying nearly all the privileges of a freeman."

✓ **Legate**, a representative of the Pope.

✓ **Livery**, the keeping by nobles of liveried retainers to fight in their quarrels.

✓ **Lollards**, the followers of Wyclif, the Reformer, in the fourteenth century; said to be derived from the Low German *lollen*, to sing or hum, and to refer to their peculiar manner of hymn-singing. (See pp. 191, 198.)

✓ **Maintenance**, the custom under which a poor suitor received from a rich noble aid in money to carry on his lawsuit, on condition that, if the verdict were favourable, the larger share of the damages would go to the "maintainer."

Manor, originally a dependent township, formed by a *thegn*, and consisting of the *laets*, or labourers, who worked on his land. In this case the town-reeve was appointed by the *thegn*, in whom were vested the rights and privileges which, in the case of a free township, belonged to the freemen. Under the Normans, the counties were subdivided into manors. (See p. 66.)

✓ **Marchers**, those who lived in the Marches or border-lands between England and Wales. Those who lived on the marches of England and Scotland were called *Borderers*.

Mark (Scottish *merk*), an obsolete coin, worth 13s. 4d., so called from the *mark* on it.

Marriage. See "Incidents, Feudal."

Marshal, The, one of the great officers of the royal household in the time of the Norman and Angevin kings. His chief function was as Master of the Horse. The office of Earl Marshal became hereditary in the family of the Earls of Pembroke.

Men-at-arms, the chief element in a feudal army, consisting of knights, esquires, and their followers, clad in mail; they were heavy cavalry.

Mercia—that is, "the march-land," or border-land, because it was originally the frontier land between the English and the Welsh.

✓ **Mise**, an agreement; properly a case or issue put (Fr. *mis*, from Lat. *missus*, sent) before a court of law—for example, the *Mise of Lewes* (p. 139).

Mortgage, a conveyance of property temporarily in pledge of a debt. The property is forfeited, or becomes *dead* (Fr. *mort*, dead; *gage*, pledge), if the debt is not paid on a certain date.

Mortmain (Lat. *in mortuū manū*, in the dead hand), the transference of property to a corporation, such as a city, an abbey, or a church, which is, in the eye of the law, a *dead hand*, or one that cannot part with its property. Property thus transferred ceased to owe military service to the King, and could not be escheated, or recovered by its grantor, since there could be no failure of heirs. The statute of 1279 referred to lands held by religious houses (*De Religiosis*. See p. 145).

Neolithic, belonging to the second or New Stone Age: from Gr. *neos*, new; *lithos*, stone. (See p. 14.)

Nothing, a worthless person; a term of contempt. (See p. 73.)

Ordainers, Lords, a committee of Parliament appointed to draw up *Ordinances*, or articles of reform, in 1310.

Ordeal, a mode of proving the guilt or the innocence of an accused person by an appeal to the gods. The tests used were hot water and fire. (See p. 58.)

Palæolithic, belonging to the Ancient Stone Age: from Gr. *palaios*, ancient; *lithos*, stone. (See p. 13.)

✓ **Parliament**, the name of the Great Council of the nation in and after the reign of Henry III.; first used by Matthew Paris in 1246.

Poll-tax, a tax of so much per *head* on every person over fifteen years of age. (See p. 179.)

✓ **Port-reeve**, the chief officer at a port; the magistrate of a seaport town.

Poundage. See *Tunnage and Poundage*.

Præmunire, the offence of carrying a lawsuit to a foreign court, especially the Papal Court: so called from the opening words of the statute, "*Præmunire facias A. B.*"=Cause A. B. to be forewarned. (See pp. 173, 186.)

Presentment, Juries of, an improved method of trial by compurgation, under which juries were to swear true accusations (*vera dicta*, verdicts) against offenders.

Primer seisin. See "Incidents, Feudal."

Privy Council, the name first given to the King's Council in the time of Henry VI.

Provisions. The legislative acts of the Great Council were so called in the reign of Henry III.—for example, the *Provisions of Oxford* (1258), and the *Provisions of Westminster* (1259).

Provisors, nominees of the Pope presented to English benefices. (See p. 173.)

Purveyance, the right of the King's household, when he was travelling in the country, to demand provisions for the King and his followers at prices fixed by the royal purveyors, and to impress for the King's service the horses and carriages of his subjects at a fixed charge.

Quia Emptores ("Whereas the purchasers" of lands, etc.), the opening words of the Third Statute of Westminster. (See p. 146.)

Quo warranto (With what warrant?), the opening words of the *Statute of Gloucester* (1278), dealing with the titles by which lands were held.

Recognitors, twelve knights of the shire, appointed indirectly by the sheriff, and authorized to examine and settle disputes. This is probably the true origin of trial by jury.

Rede-less, A.S. *rede-laes*, hasty; from *red* or *raed*, advice.

Relief. See "Incidents, Feudal."

Renaissance, or Renascence, the revival of learning in Europe in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, consequent on the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, and the scattering of scholars and manuscripts which followed.

Saladin tithe, a tax of one-tenth on movable property levied by Henry II. in 1188, to equip a crusade against the Sultan Saladin.

Scutage, shield-money (Lat. *scutum*, a shield), accepted by the King from those vassals who were unwilling to render knight service.

Serf, a freeman who bound himself to labour for a thegn in order to obtain his protection. The serf could not be removed from the land on which he laboured.

Shire, a collection of hundreds in later times, when society and government were organized. (A.S. *scir*, from *sceran*, to shear or divide.)

Shire-mote (also *folk-mote*), the court of the shire, composed of the shire-reeve, who presided, the ealdorman, the bishop, and representatives of the hundreds. It dealt with cases affecting different hundreds, or of great importance. It met twice a year. The Shire-mote became the county court in Norman times.

Shire-reeve, the ruler of a shire; hence modern *sheriff*. He was appointed by the King, and presided in the *Shire-mote*.

Socage, tenure of land by fixed service, not military—for example, to plough the lord's land for a fixed number of days in the year, or to pay a fixed rent.

Speaker, The, the President of the House of Commons; so called because he was the spokesman of

the House in addressing the Crown. The first to bear the title of Speaker was Sir Peter de la Mare (1377), though the functions of the office were discharged by others before him, especially by Sir Thomas Hungerford in 1376.

Staple (lit. a fixed or settled market), the principal products of a country. In feudal England the staple commodities were wool, wools, leather, lead, and tin. The merchants of the staple had a monopoly in these goods; and the staple towns were the ports to which their exportation was limited. (See p. 174.)

Star Chamber Court, a court organized by Parliament in 1486, for the trial of offenders too powerful to be reached by the ordinary or local courts. It was really a committee of the Privy Council intrusted with judicial powers. The name *Star Chamber* was taken from the decorations of the room the court occupied, or perhaps from Jewish bonds, called *starres*, which were formerly kept there. The chief purpose of the court was to put down *maintenance* and *livery* (q.v.).

Statute (lit. something set up), a formal Act of Parliament. The earliest Act bearing the title is the *Statute of Marlborough*, 1267. From the time of Edward III. statutes were founded on *Petitions* of the Commons to the King. In the reign of Henry V. the King agreed not to alter the petitions. In that of Henry VI. the statutes were introduced in the form of *Bills*, as a more certain way of preventing alterations.

Suspending power, the right assumed by the King at certain times to suspend the operation of a statute.

Suzerain, a feudal lord; the King under the feudal system.

✓ **Tallage** (also *Talliage* and *Tailage*)—

lit. a share or proportional part, as a tenth, or a fifteenth (Fr. *taille*, from *tailler*, to cut)—the name given to a tax on towns, boroughs, and demesnes, equivalent to *hideage* levied on lands, and to *scutage* levied on knights' fees. The exacting of tallage was forbidden in the declaration *De Tallagio non Concedendo* (1297); but it was exacted in 1304, 1312, and 1332. The impost was extinguished by an act of 1340. (See pp. 148, 178.)

✓ **Tenant**, one who held land of a suzerain or superior. The *tenant-in-capite*, or *tenant-in-chief*, held directly of the King; the *sub-tenant* held of a tenant-in-chief.

Teutonic, one of the seven stocks of the Aryan family of languages. Of this stock there are two branches—the Germanic and the Scandinavian. The Germanic branch is subdivided into Low-German (English, Friesian, Dutch, Flemish) and High-German (Old, Middle, and Modern). The Scandinavian branch includes Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian, as well as Icelandic and Faroic.

✓ **Thegn**, a servant; name given to gesiths who undertook certain duties in the household or court of an ealdorman. There were greater and lesser thegns.

Theows, Anglo-Saxon slaves; men who had lost their freedom through crime or misfortune. They could be sold.

Thor, the Anglo-Saxon god of thunder; hence *Thunres-daeg*, Thursday.

Tiw, the national god of the Teutons; hence *Tiwes-daeg*, Tuesday.

Tournament, a conflict of mounted knights; the chief sport of chivalry.

Town-mote, the meeting of the freemen in a township.

Town-reeve, the head of a township, elected by the freemen.

Township, a village community among the Anglo-Saxons—the unit of the organized government. The free township consisted of freemen, who elected the town-reeve. Dependent townships were called *manors* (q.v.).

Tribe, a collection of hundreds in Anglo-Saxon times. In later times the tribe became the shire.

✓ **Tunnage and Poundage**, import duties of 2s. on each tun of wine, and 6d. on each pound of merchandise. They were first granted by Parliament in 1373 as a temporary tax. In the time of Henry V. they became a fixed source of revenue.

Valhalla, in the Scandinavian mythology, the heaven to which the souls of heroes slain in battle were translated.

✓ **Vassal**, any one who held land of a superior; but generally applied to those holding of a tenant or a subtenant.

Vikings—that is, “sons of the *vic*” or *vic*, the Norse word for a bay or creek. The word, therefore, means “bay-dwellers” or “creekers.” The termination is *-ing*, not *-king*.

✓ **Villein**, a slave under the feudal system. Most of the English ceorls and all the serfs were made villeins by the Normans. They were of two classes—(1) those who were attached to the soil, and who did not change owners except with the land they worked on; (2) those who were the personal property of their owners, and who were liable to be sold.

Villanage survived in England till the close of the fifteenth century. (See p. 248.)

Ward-mote, a court or meeting of freemen in a ward or a district of a town.

Wardship. See “Incidents, Feudal.”

Welsh—that is, “foreigners” or “barbarians.” The Greeks, in like manner, called all those who spoke languages which they did not understand “barbarians.”

✓ **Were-gild**—a man’s price—the fine for killing a man, which varied with the rank of the victim from 200 to 6,000 shillings. *Were* is A.S. *wer*, a man, akin to Lat. *vir*. It appears in the original form of Canterbury, *Cant-wara-byrig*, the burgh of the men of Kent.

✓ **Witena-gemôt**, or **Witan**—literally “the meeting of the wise men”—the highest court of the nation in Anglo-Saxon times. It consisted of the King (as president), the ealdormen, the greater thegns, and the clergy of all degrees. It met generally twice a year, at different places—London, Gloucester, Oxford, etc. Its function was both legislative and administrative, and its jurisdiction was both civil and criminal. Its highest duty was to elect the King. After the Norman Conquest it became the *Great Council* (q.v.), which became the *Parliament* (q.v.).

Woden or **Odin**, the Anglo-Saxon god of war; hence *Wôdenes-daeg*, Wednesday.

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